# DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 168 322 FL 010 156

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|---|---|
| TITLE | Theoretical Foundations of the Language Development Program and Rationale for the Learning System: Language Development Program for Bilingual Education. |
| INSTITUTION | Southwest Educational Development Lab., Austin, Tex. |
| SPONS AGENCY | National Inst. of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. |
| PUB DATE | 69 |
| NOTE | 266p. |
| AVAILABLE FROM | Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 211 East Seventh Street, Austin, Texas 78701 |
| EDRS PRICE | MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS. |
| DESCRIPTORS | Anthropological Linguistics; Behavior Problems; *Bilingual Education; Bilingualism; *Cultural Awareness; Elementary Secondary Education; Intellectual Development; *Language Programs; Language Teachers; Learning Theories; Linguistic Theory; Minority Groups; Phonology; *Second Language Learning; Self Concept; Social Discrimination; *Sociolinguistics; Teacher Education |
| IDENTIFIERS | *Southwest Educational Development Laboratory |

ABSTRACT

Four theoretical papers and fourteen modules are presented that are to be used by local school systems to educate teachers and staff members in the understanding of curriculum content and acquisition of skills in teaching-learning procedures. The papers discuss the selected theories upon which the language program of the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL) is based. They provide rationale and understanding for more detailed information found in "Back-up Information and Theoretical Foundations for Development of a Coding System." The modules include: (1) "Disruption, Disengagements, and Behavior Control"; (2) "A Rationale for Modeling and Drill Management Teaching Strategies Employed in Bilingual Programs"; (3) "Verbal Rewards"; (4) "Experience Referents"; (5) "The Self-Concept and Its Importance in Bilingual Education"; (6) "Developing an Awareness of Phonological Interferences"; (7) "The Why of Phonological Interferences and Techniques for Correcting Them"; (8) "Teacher/Pupil Talk Patterns"; (9) "The Bilingual Child and How He Differs"; (10) "Historical Considerations of Hispanic Contributions to the Settlement and Development of the Southwest"; (11) "Anthropological and Sociological Considerations Relating to the Hispanic People of the Southwest"; (12) "Psychological Foundations for Second-Language Teaching"; (13) "Minority Groups and the Problems of Prejudice, Discrimination, and Poverty"; and (14) "Cultural Contributions: Our Debt to the Hispanic People." (SW)

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# Theoretical Foundations of the Language Development Program and Rationale for the Learning System

## Language Development Program for Bilingual Education

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Southwest Educational Development Laboratory

# THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF THE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

and

# RATIONALE FOR THE LEARNING SYSTEM

## LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

for

## BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory

Austin, Texas

Produced by Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, a private corporation supported in part as a regional educational laboratory by funds from the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The opinions expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the Office of Education, and no official endorsement by the Office of Education should be inferred.

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Austin, Texas

# FOREWORD

The Staff Development Package developed by the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory consists of sets of materials to be used by local school systems to educate teachers and staff members in the understanding of curriculum content and acquisition of skills in teaching-learning procedures as set forth in the SEDL Language Guides. The materials contained in this booklet were prepared by the Research and Development Center of the University of Texas at Austin, and are directly related to teacher education and skills development.

The four theoretical papers discuss the selected theories upon which the SEDL Language Program is based, the papers provide program rationale and understanding for more detailed information found in "Back-up Information and Theoretical Foundations for Development of a Coding System." The modules correspond to the coding system booklets and are intended to supplement and increase the teachers' understanding of the strategies called for in the teaching-learning system.

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# BILINGUALISM

# LEARNING THEORIES AND INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT

BY

MARK W. SENG

# BILINGUALISM: LEARNING THEORIES AND INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT

## PURPOSE

The purpose of this paper is: 1) to explain the function of language, including its relation to intellectual development; 2) to identify and describe four learning theories which underlie a valid bilingual education program; 3) to illustrate how these theories are incorporated within the instructional materials; 4) to suggest ways in which the teacher with a grasp of the underlying learning theories may teach more effectively and creatively.

## THE FUNCTION OF LANGUAGE

Man benefits from language in two ways. It gives men an instrument to communicate their ideas. Second, it influences their intellectual capability. Psychologists appear to agree that it is language which distinguishes man from animal. For example, Pavlov maintained that man has two signalling systems, the higher system (i.e., language) enabling man to a "new type of neural activity-abstraction." (Rivers, 1964, p. 26) Apparently, it is the lower system of automatic response which is common to both man and animal. Other psychologists have modified Skinner's applied psychology, which attempted to explain language in terms of the same principles as nonverbal behavior, by including the concept of mediation. Mediation is those activities which occur between observable stimuli and observable responses. These "neo-behaviorists" have developed theories which can facilitate language teaching by describing how learning occurs (e.g., Staats and Staats, 1964).

At present, learning theories are more appropriately called subtheories because they tend to describe only certain types of human behavior (Klausmeier and Goodwin, 1966). Human learning may frequently be assigned to one of three categories: intellectual, attitudinal, or motor. Language learning, however, requires simultaneous consideration of all three categories. For example, students must learn to produce physically the sounds of a new language. They must develop intellectual concepts. Third, teaching must be carried on in a way that develops positive attitudes and maintains student interest and morale. It is important to underscore this last point because one's language repertoire reflects one's innermost self, because language reflects cultural attitudes, and because it is desirable that the learning process be perceived as pleasant by the pupil.

If the program is to achieve success in terms of student and teacher acceptance, a bilingual language program must consider intellectual skills, attitude formation, and oral skill development. Children, consequently, must have adequate opportunity as well as stimulation for oral skill development. This means as much oral practice as possible while developing concepts, and enjoyment of the process. With such a bilingual program, the child will grow intellectually more competent, more proficient in expressing his own expanding universe of ideas, and confident of his own intrinsic worth. The program demands every possible insight gained by learning theories from experimentation involving human beings, yet put into practice by teachers in a sensitive, sensible way.

## LEARNING, LAWS OF LEARNING, AND LEARNING THEORIES

What is meant by learning? If, after some experience, a child is able to do something he previously was unable to do, the child is said to have learned (Klausmeier and Goodwin, 1966). One can distinguish learning from performance which provides us with observable evidence that learning has occurred. In other words, one may learn but not be called upon to demonstrate that he has learned. Learning, as will be shown later, can also occur without a person's being aware that he has learned. One type of this special kind of learning is called conditioning.

A law of learning is a generalization about some aspect of learning which has proved its validity over a period of time. The law of pleasant effect following an activity is one example. The advantages of spaced versus massed practice is another (e.g., have shorter, more frequent practice sessions). A learning theory may attempt to assemble these laws in a compatible manner or it may describe a theoretical "model" which is then used to guide actual learning situations for its verification. A learning theory is not a teaching theory but must be interpreted and applied. This calls for skill by program developers and also by the teacher who uses the instructional materials and strategies in the actual classroom. The teacher who understands the learning theories used to develop the program can then implement the program to suit her particular students and her own unique personality. Blindly following rules can result in boring, ineffectual classes, whereas understanding the rationale enables her to teach creatively with the security that she understands the reasons why certain procedures have been suggested, with the implication

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that the procedures call for her professional interpretation in specific instances. From the many learning theories described and tested, certain theories seem especially relevant for a bilingual program.

## CLASSICAL AND OPERANT CONDITIONING

Nelson Brooks (1964) describes two types of learning theories. Pavlov demonstrated that pairing two stimuli several times caused the second stimulus to acquire responses previously evoked only by the first stimulus. Essentially this association of two stimuli is classical conditioning. For example, assume you have read a popular comic strip many times. The name Linus (stimulus one) soon calls to mind the thought of a blanket (stimulus two). Classical conditioning has been shown by Staats and others to be a process by which meaning is attached to words (e.g., Staats and Staats, 1964). Attitudes have also been found to be established in this way. The child soon learns that a smile indicates approval and acceptance. The teacher who enjoys her work and openly expresses these feelings usually fosters favorable attitudes on the part of her students. It is by the process of classical conditioning that such words as "Fine," "Very good," "Well done," have acquired a favorable connotation. It is through a second type of learning that we initially learn our first language.

The young infant, according to Brooks (1964), at four weeks is "....heedful of sounds; at sixteen weeks, he babbles, coos....(pp.36-37)." Brooks cites Osgood and Sebeok in Psycholinguistics that "....profiles of sounds produced by newborn infants show no differences over racial, cultural, or language groups (p.37)." He states that many people falsely believe that the child makes the first breakthrough into language (voluntarily matching an object in the environment with the appropriate vocal sound) by imitating those around him. Brooks cites many scholars to disprove this commonly held assumption. For example, he cites McCarthy who writes of the "....tremendous psychological gap which has to be bridged between the mere utterance of the phonetic form of a word and the symbolic or representational use of that word....(p. 37)."

What actually occurs is that when, by trial and error, the child approximates a sound perhaps of "Mama" the nearby mother interprets this as actual speech. She reinforces that sound by immediately holding the child or feeding it, until that tremendous gap is bridged when the child does indeed intentionally pronounce that word. The anecdote about Helen Keller appears to be a unique case in which a mature mind, according to Brooks (1964), recalled the initial insight of language as symbolization. That vivid moment on a summer's day when she felt the stream of water splash on her hand (as her teacher spelled out the word water) was the instant she learned that words stand for things.

Trial and error learning is often called operant conditioning and was initially described as part of a learning theory by Skinner. Essentially, it refers to the phenomenon of rewarding a desired behavior if and when it occurs. At first, experimentation was limited to animals. Now, however, there is a vast amount of research concerning this type of learning with humans, with an extensive amount of literature describing its operation in human verbal learning. Krasner (1961) published a study of operant conditioning experiments listing numerous studies based upon verbal conditioning using such reinforcers as "Good," or "Right (p. 78)." A variety of different human behaviors were effectively developed using this procedure. Successful application of this theory requires an understanding of the theory. For example, in the classroom a verbal reward such as "Good" (which has acquired its meaning through classical conditioning or association) must be given only _if_ and _when_ the child responds appropriately. It must also be said as quickly as possible so that the child perceives for which response he is being praised. Another factor involves using verbal reinforcement appropriately so that the reinforcing words maintain their value for the child. The teacher who understands the wealth of research underpinning operant conditioning will recognize its power, but more important, will be able to apply the theory to a variety of situations in a creative manner. Besides, as Rivers (1964) says, "From the teacher's point of view, the more frequently the correct response occurs, the more economical is the teaching procedures (p. 61)."

## MODELING

A related learning theory was developed by Bandura and Walters which incorporates some aspects of operant conditioning but relates to social learning through a technique know as _modeling_ (Bandura and Walters, 1963). Rather than relying upon trial and error reinforcing correct responses, _if_ and _when_ they occur, the young child, they have shown, can learn complex skills very quickly simply by observing another person demonstrate those skills. The procedure is enhanced, their research has shown, if either the person who acts as the model or those imitating the model are reinforced for exhibiting the desired behavior.

In this technique the teacher illustrates the correct way to pronounce a word, phrase or sentence. This model gives the children a head start in developing the motor skills necessary to produce the sounds. However, developing those skills requires that the children practice oral language in a way that will minimize errors. Making errors does not help the child who also provides a false model for the other children. To minimize mistakes and to make the activity interesting, the class may be divided into different groups by employing various strategies. Such structured lessons should be kept short and lively with choral recitation before individuals are called upon to recite (Rivers, 1964).

Rivers (1964) cites Politzer who says that "The real skill of the teacher lies not in correcting and punishing wrong responses but in creating situations in which the student is induced to respond correctly (p. 61)." Rivers goes on to say:

> This has been the basis of many effective teaching procedures in foreign-language classes: choral recitation of responses by the class after the teacher before individuals are called on to recite; drills and exercises in which a minimal change has to be made; question-and-answer procedures in which the student's response involves, for the most part, repetition of materials contained in the question; and the use of memorized dialogue material in recreations of everyday situations (Rivers, 1964, P. 61).

The fact that a child can learn to pronounce a second language without accent is generally accepted. It is no longer generally accepted that children learn second languages more efficiently than adults. Politzer and Weiss (1969) in an article in the Modern Language Journal concluded that the child's superior ability in language learning is "...almost invariably demonstrated in a natural setting rather than a school situation. The natural setting does not tend to set a limit to the number of repetitions necessary....while the school situation" (in which the child studies the language for a very short period) tends to do the "... exact opposite (p. 84)." One of the important advantages of a bilingual program is that it provides a basic amount of structured material which offers the child and teacher a point of departure for expansion during the day. Thus, the teacher can build language skills throughout the entire day based upon a minimal amount of structured activity. It is the child's unique advantage of minimal interference from native language which allows him to learn a language more thoroughly when combined with practice throughout the day, in as natural a setting as possible. When the child speaks appropriately, he is "reinforced" instantly. When he is searching for a word, that word is supplied and the resulting use also reinforced.

In speaking of operant and classical conditioning, Wallace Lambert also (1963a, 1963b) discusses the potential value of these learning theories and the extensive documentation which supports them. In relation to operant conditioning, the students may not even be aware of the relation between the teacher's reinforcement and their own learning. Lambert (1963a) says:

> These developments can be of immediate importance for language teachers who can be either effective or ineffective as social reinforcers of their students' attempts to develop appropriate verbal habits (p. 56).

Psychologist-linguist Lambert (1963b) speaks from an impressive background of research in bilingual education. Later he discusses the notion of how bilinguals can learn two symbols which refer to the same concept and "yet manage to use each language system with a minimum of interlingual interferences (p. 119)." The student learning the seond language in the same context will become a compound bilingual according to Lambert:

> wherein the symbols of both languages function as interchangeable alternatives with essentially the same meanings. A "coordinate" system would be developed when the language-acquisition contexts were culturally, temporarily or functionally segregated (Lambert, 1963b, p. 119).

If the goal is to develop students who are "bicultural" then it would seem advisable to point out differences between the words referring to essentially the same concepts. When one discusses the word as a symbol, one is then discussing meaning, or experience referents. Language, as was pointed out previously, serves as a vehicle for communication, but also comprises at least one aspect of intellectual competency. The more that one knows, the easier it is to learn new concepts. What is a concept and what is its relation to intellectual development and language?

## CONCEPTS

The word concept is widely used. Yet, if asked to define a concept many persons find themselves hard put to express the "concept of the concept." After an explanation of this term, it will be related to another learning theory, to the nature of intelligence, and how learning new concepts is facilitated in the bilingual program.

Gary Davis (1966) in discussing the subject of an article in the Journal of Psychology calls concept learning "probably the most important of all instances of learned human behavior (p. 249)." However, he points out the obscurity in clarifying what a concept is and how it is learned. He discusses two uses of the term, each of which will be discussed. One type of concept learning applies to the conceptual buildup in the oral language development for grade one science; the second type of concept learning applies to the conceptual base established by the oral language development in social studies for the first grade. Concept learning as categorizing behavior is discussed first.

Concept may be interpreted to mean a category into which a number of items may be classified. The category has certain limitations or attributes which are common to all instances of a given concept. For example, the concept might be "round." Into this category would fit perhaps objects which had in common the fact that they were all round, such as a button, a coin, a dish, and a paper circle. Davis (1966) points out that researchers refer to this type of concept learning as a process of "abstraction" or "abstraction learning (p. 249)." The concept for this type of learning is the category itself which does not exist as a separate entity. What do a bus, a bicycle, and a plane have in common? Obviously they are vehicles, and are used by human beings. In speaking of classroom learning, Davis says that "Whether one speaks of forming concepts in childhood, learning concepts in the classroom, or identifying 'concepts' in ...(p. 250)" psychological experiments, all the responses of the child in which he places an item in the right category are reinforced. He then explains that the learning principles here are those of instrumental or operant conditioning. The reinforcement serves primarily as feedback to the student.

Therefore, the teacher presents examples of the conceptual category with non-examples to enable the children to abstract the concept. The psychological rationale underlying one aspect of the science program relies upon operant conditioning to help the child abstract those concepts selected to be of greatest ultimate value to the child.

However, as the child is abstracting the concept, the opportunity presents itself for oral language development. The critical point here is that the teacher is using operant conditioning learning theory simultaneously for two completely different types of learning: science concept formation and correct oral language development. It becomes exceedingly important that the teacher not reinforce a response correct for one type of learning but incorrect for the other. For example, if the child responds, "This is a circle," when indeed it is a circle but grossly mispronounces is, reinforcement of that response will make it far, far more difficult for the child to learn the correct pronunciation of is in the future for the following reasons. First, he was reinforced after he said is incorrectly. Second, he was given "feedback" in addition to reinforcement that his response was correct. Third, the wrong response was reinforced on an intermittent "schedule."

Ferster, Skinner (1957), and many others have conducted extensive research on schedules of reinforcement, that is, reinforcing every correct response, every other one, or at varying intervals (e.g., Ferster & Skinner, 1957). Definitive research findings conclude that responses reinforced intermittently are extremely difficult to extinguish. Thus, telling a child "That's right" referring to the correct science concept expressed in unacceptable language is far worse than no reinforcement because the wrong language response will persist that much longer. Learning theory would suggest that the appropriate technique would be to immediately repeat the child's response in correct language than adding verbal reward.

The science lessons are carefully structured to facilitate concept learning by presenting the child with concepts which may be rather quickly differentiated. It was for this reason that for example, a circle, square and triangle are presented in the first lesson with similar careful structuring following in the other lessons. Davis (1966) points out that the recommended way to teach this type of concept is contiguous presentation of examples with immediate feedback, bearing in mind that what the child must learn are those abstract cues which define the concept. He then explains the second type of concept.

The second type of concept, according to Davis, refers to "acquisition of meaning." For example, you have the concept of the word of Charlie Brown. The word Charlie Brown elicits a series of meaning responses. You might think of a small boy, comics, baseball, Linus and Linus' blanket, happiness and perhaps many others. You have learned these responses because you have seen pictures of Charlie Brown in conjunction with the other responses. You have enjoyed reading the comic strip which would perhaps explain the nonverbal, generalized response of humor. "Thus," Davis (1966) says, "principles of classical conditioning would seem to describe concept learning as the acquisition of meaning responses to a concept name (p. 251)." Classical conditioning of word meaning has been repeatedly demonstrated (e.g., Staats & Staats, 1964).

It may appear that the two types of concepts are almost reciprocal. Both have the element essential to concept, the idea of categorizing. In the first type the child learns that a group of different objects have something in common, that they may be placed in the category of circular or all are examples of vehicles. In the meaning concept of "Charlie Brown," the string of responses all have only one thing in common. They all relate to Charlie Brown. However with the first type (categorizing) the child learns that there are several criteria which objects must meet to be placed into that concept. With the second (meaning concept), there is only one criterion (Charlie Brown). The two concepts are almost mirror images. A fascinating aspect is that this interpretation of what a concept is may be used to explain intellectual development.

## THE RELATION OF CONCEPTS AND INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT

A concept has two functions or characteristics. First, it has the notion of something in common. Second, it has the notion of association. The car and the bus have in common the fact that they are both vehicles. Linus, a small boy, and baseball have in common the fact that they are meaning responses from the stimulus word _Charlie Brown_. Besides the idea of something in common, concepts have the characteristic of association or relationship of a large number of different ideas. It is commonly realized that one learns something new much faster and retains it much longer _if_ one is able to relate the new fact to something one already knows. If one cannot relate a new idea or word, the learning has been defined by psychologists as rote learning. For example, suppose you wish to remember your license number. If the initial letters of the number are "XPA," the task will be more difficult than if the initial letters are "SIT," which you may associate with the idea that you sit in your car.

The task of program developers is to help the child develop those concepts which will prove of most value to him, which will deal with things which are important, and which will include a number of related things. Such concepts can be divided into smaller, more precise concepts. The first concept in the grade one social studies materials provides an excellent example of this type of concept.

SOCIAL STUDIES

The initial concept is "How Do We Live?" How does the idea of how we live relate to the notion of association? Why was this concept selected to establish a conceptual base? Considered as a category, "How do we live?" can include a tremendous number of very important subconcepts. The illustrative topic of "School" is selected for its immediacy and importance to the child and serves as a focal point to relate society's needs as served through basic social institutions. It can be seen immediately that this concept of "How do we live?" will include many ideas important to the child as well as to adults. To enable the child to abstract this concept and to attach meaning to it, specific content areas which are encompassed by this global concept are offered to the child, always beginning with concrete objects and experiences which the child can readily perceive and which have importance for him. Different aspects of the school are those initially suggested in the social studies program. Note that "School" is a category or concept itself which is encompassed within the larger concept of "How do we live?" By presenting the child with concrete examples which he can perceive directly through many senses, the concept of school and its defining and meaning attributes are abstracted by the child. Within the child's mind the conceptual category of school gradually develops clarity and stability. In other words the word school acquires meaning for the child in the same way that the much less sophisticated concept of Charlie Brown acquired meaning for us. In addition the child learns the attributes of a school and what falls within this category and what does not. However, the essential concept formation is that of acquiring meaning for the word school. The concept school is, in turn, related to the greater concept of "How do we live?"

One grasps immediately that words are concepts or categories into which new ideas may be placed. The larger the number of words the child has acquired, the higher the probability that he will be able to establish a relationship between something new and some concept or concepts he has already learned. In this sense his language increases his intellectual capability. Note that the term intellectual capability has been used with deliberate avoidance of the term intelligence. It does seem obvious that the child with a large number of concepts on varying levels of inclusiveness will learn more easily because he can relate new material to a larger number of concepts already known.

A child learning new material will be able to learn the new ideas most readily if he can relate the new idea to some concept already established. Second, he will be able to learn new ideas more precisely if he has a concept into which the new idea is tightly enclosed. Assume for example the child has begun to develop the large concept of the school enclosed in the much larger concept of "How do we live?" Within the concept of school he has developed the smaller, more precise concept that some items within the school building belong to the teacher, some to himself, and some to other children. He will be able to use this concept of ownership to create the concept of non-ownership in terms of public property. The concept of non-ownership is in some respects totally contrasting to ownership, but it is this contrast which gives him the opportunity to create a new conceptual category and to associate precisely the new idea with what he already knows.

It is essential, therefore, to aid the child in developing first those concepts which he can use to encompass new material of greatest importance to him and for him. If a child has no concept which will include new material, he must learn the new material in isolation or rotely. Rote learning has been proved by psychologists to be the least effective means of learning, to be forgotten the fastest, and to be the most boring and frustrating activity for the child (e.g., Ausubel, 1963).

The intellectual development of the child (or an adult) is directly dependent upon the number of concepts or categories comprising his knowledge, the importance or relevance of those concepts to new learning, and the clarity with which those concepts are formed (that is, the degree to which concepts contained within larger concepts may be separated out from those larger concepts). The child who develops concepts in order of importance and who learns concepts clearly will be able to draw upon those concepts to facilitate new learning. This facilitation is referred to by psychologists as transfer. Thus, it is essential that the teacher relate new material to what the child already knows. That relation may take the form of simply calling his attention to the fact that the earth is shaped like a pear or it might be that black is precisely the opposite of white. With this process occurring in an organized manner, the child will learn quickly while retaining what he has already learned. This growing and sophisticated organization of concepts, sometimes called cognitive structure, at the same time will enable the child to express himself more easily and communicate with others more effectively (Ausubel, 1963).

## CONCEPTS AND WORDS

In relation to language, a word learned by the child becomes a concept which permits the child to use it to relate to new materials while permitting him to operate at a higher intellectual level. One aspect of thinking involves the use of words other than for communication. Sometimes studied as subvocal speech, it is the process by which we think to ourselves in terms of words. With a large vocabulary, we can instantaneously call upon words in our thinking. Each word brings with it all the meaning associations it has acquired, as well as functioning as a category into which we can place new ideas. The sheer number of words we know is a major factor both in terms of our "intelligence" and in expressing our thoughts to other people.

This description of intellectual development in terms of concept formation corresponds to the learning theory of David Ausubel (1963). Ausubel speaks in terms of a "cognitive structure" which may be interpreted as the sum total of concepts and their interrelationships. He emphasizes the importance of having concepts or "subsumers" which will either perfectly enclose new material or which may directly contrast with new materials. In effect, what he says is that it is crucial to develop new concepts and then to use these new concepts as starting points to enable the student to relate and categorize new material.

Whenever possible rote learning must be avoided. Previously it was pointed out that language incorporates all three types of human learning: pure concept formation, development of attitudes toward ourselves and others in many ways, and development of physiological motor skills to form new sound patterns of pronunciation. If students practice by modeling and imitation in a drilling procedure without the teacher understanding when and why the activity is helpful, that more is being learned than to form sounds, the activity will seem not worthwhile. More than that, it will seem almost purposeless both to the teacher and children who will develop negative attitudes. It has been shown that it is possible to develop syntactical concepts (a central purpose in pattern drills) without being aware that the concepts are being developed. The child may also learn appropriate science and social studies concepts at the same time. However, it is important that the teacher be keenly aware that this learning is occurring because if she views the activity as meaningless, her attitude will quickly be communicated to sensitive children resulting in an artificial, unpleasant learning situation.

## ADULTS VERSUS CHILDREN IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Recent research has shown that adults and children learn language most effectively in different ways. The adult has a sophisticated network of concepts in his native language to bring to bear upon a second language learning task (Ausubel, 1964). The child does not have that sophisticated intellectual structure, nor as extensive native language competencies. The child's naivete, however, enables him to learn a second language with minimum interference from the first -- the key factor that enables the child to develop a perfect accent (Politzer & Weiss, 1969). The child also brings a spontaneity and eagerness to imitate whereas the older child is more inhibited in producing what he might perceive as embarrassing sounds.

## CONCLUSION

Language serves two functions. It operates as a means of communication with other persons; it also enhances one's ability to operate intellectually in learning new concepts and in calling previously learned concepts into play in the thinking process. As one example, each new word (if not learned by rote) becomes an added concept in our intellectual structure. Language learning involves learning intellectual skills, motor skills, as well as developing attitudes and emotional perspectives. Effective language teaching keeps the three areas in harmonious balance.

Four learning theories, all well documented with experimentation with humans, appeared relevant to language learning in these three domains. Classical and operant conditioning were shown to induce learning with and sometimes without awareness on the part of the student. Modeling theory increases the efficiency of learning oral language skills as well as more complex skills and attitudes. Language learning and intellectual development were explained in terms of concept formation. There appear to be two basic types of concept learning: categorization and meaning acquisition. Operant conditioning is usually called into play for the first, and classical conditioning for the second. The two types of concepts are almost reciprocal in that both call for something in common and association.

The child's intellectual development is directly dependent upon the number, quality, and discriminability of the concepts which comprise his cognitive structure. Concepts used in the bilingual program were selected to meet these criteria with consideration of immediate and long-range needs of the child. Since each word, other than rotely learned becomes a concept, vocabulary is a determiner of intellectual capability. The entire structure of intellectual development based upon the concept approach corresponds to a fourth learning theory that was briefly described.

Adults and children do not learn languages most effectively when taught in the same way. Adults have the mixed advantages of a well learned native language which facilitates language learning, based on current research results, but which causes language interference which apparently prevents learning accent-free, second language skills. Children are less inhibited and benefit from techniques perhaps not appropriate for adults. Some of these techniques include modeling and pattern drills. Apparently crucial to the success of the bilingual program is the degree to which it approaches a natural setting, that is, the extent to which language learning may continue on a more casual basis throughout the day with a certain minimal amount of structured practice.

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# LINGUISTIC VIEWS AND ASSUMPTIONS ON SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

PEDRO I. COHEN

# INTRODUCTION

This unit of instruction has been written for inservice teachers of a bilingual program or for those who are preparing to become bilingual teachers. It has been written to describe contemporary linguistic principles and their applications to second-language teaching and learning.

During your teaching career, you will be faced with a number of problems concerning the most efficient ways of solving everyday difficulties encountered in the classroom. You do not have to be a descriptive linguist in order to become a good bilingual teacher. However, we feel confident that after you have studied this instructional unit you will gain some valuable insights as to the importance of linguistics in your job. You will also be able to understand much better why audio-lingual techniques are advocated and widely used in bilingual programs. We believe that, as a result, you will be better prepared to teach English or Spanish as second languages more effectively.

We sincerely hope that your time and effort in studying the following questions and answers will be worthwhile and that this will lead to a more satisfying teaching experience for you. Regardless of what bilingual curriculum materials are in use, the key to successful learning experiences in any bilingual program is the teacher.

## WHAT IS LINGUISTICS?

Linguistics is defined as the scientific discipline that is concerned with the description and classification of the languages of the world. A linguist is a scientist who is trained to describe, as economically as possible, the structure of a language. A taxi driver in many cosmopolitan and large cities must be able to communicate in several languages in order to make a living. He is considered a polyglot, not a linguist. On the other hand, a linguist studies and describes languages, although he may not always speak them. He is a linguist but not necessarily a polyglot.

Because linguists study, classify, and describe languages in a scientific manner, they are interested in foreign language learning and teaching. As a result of this interest, linguists have been able to offer practical solutions to the everyday problems confronting the foreign language teacher in his classroom. Before we discuss some of these contributions, we must outline how linguists describe language.

## WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

Most linguists would accept the following definition: Language is a (a) systematic, (b) analogical, (c) patterned, (d) set of oral habits, (e) used by the members of a cultural group, (f) to communicate and interact socially. This way of looking at the nature of language is a very powerful device because, as we will see later, it justifies modern methods and techniques used in foreign language and bilingual programs.

The assumption that the English language, for example, is systematic is easily corroborated by the fact that when we deal with the sounds or words of the language we always find them in an ordered combination that is meaningful to the speakers of English. For example, permissible sound sequences in English at the beginning of a word are consonant combinations, such as sk-, st-, sl-, as in skate, stable, slow, but not ks-, ts-, ls-, although these occur at the end of words, as in asks, boots, and fills. The system of the English language accepts combinations of words in this order: the good man, but rejects the man good, which is found in the Spanish language system (el hombre bueno), along with the first combination, el buen hombre. (14 pp. 24-5.)

When people use words like superpower and superstate, and construct new words like supermarket, supermouse, superman, supergirl; or when children say I knowed it, She gived it to me, I singed a song, they are constructing language on the basis of its productive, analogical nature.

Because language is systematic, a cursory look at it will show that ordered combinations of sounds and words fall into recurring designs or patterns. Modern grammarians say that the basic patterns of sentences in a language are limited in number and that more complex sentences are but systematic combinations or transformations of basic patterns. On the pattern of call, calls, calling, called, a number of regular verbs can be developed in English. Finally, the fact that most English sentences are of the type subject + verb + object, and that thousands of new sentences can be constructed on the basis of this model, points out the assumption that language is a composite of many simple and complex patterns.

Another feature of language that linguists consider relevant to foreign language teaching and learning is that language is oral expression first and written expression next. This is easy to understand if we think about the interesting fact that a majority of the languages in the world have never been written. If we studied the fascinating history of writing systems, we would find that languages were spoken for thousands of years before any civilization put its speech habits into some sort of writing system. So, for a linguist, language is a set of oral habits, social habits acquired by frequent repetition.

Language cannot be detached from the culture that gives meaning to it. When people speak, their culture is voiced through their speech habits. People use this system of oral expression to communicate among themselves and to go about their social interactions, expressing their manners, tastes, hopes, feeling, fears, traditions, customs, and beliefs. (15, pp. 55-8; 21, pp. 37-8.)

## WHAT ARE SOME OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF LINGUISTICS TO FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING?

We said earlier that the findings of linguists about the nature of language have had an impact on modern methods and techniques used in foreign language teaching and learning. From our definition of language, it is evident that the study of the nature of languages is closely related not only to the study of linguistics but also to the study of psychology and anthropology. The fact is that every one of these fields has evolved important assumptions which have a direct bearing on the preparation, presentation, and teaching of foreign language materials.

If, as shown above, language is systematic, then it follows that language can be taught, and that it must be taught as a linguistic system, not as a composite of unrelated structures. Since the system of a language is made of several simple and complex levels -- sounds that combine to make words, words that combine to make phrases, phrases that combine to make sentences, and so on -- acquiring a new language involves specifically the learning (the systematized levels) of the particular language system.

We have mentioned the resource possessed by speakers of a language when they exercise the ability to expand their performance in their native language on the basis of analogy and patterns. Indeed, this device is so productive that it explains why linguists highly recommend the use of pattern practice in teaching and learning foreign languages.

Another contribution made by linguists in the field of teaching and learning foreign languages is related to their view of language as a set of oral, not written, habits. On the basis of this important assumption, we can draw the following conclusions: (a) the student learning a foreign language should learn to speak it before he learns to write it; (b) since the native language is also a set of oral habits, the acquisition of a foreign language will lead to certain interferences; (c) the activities in which the student should be involved throughout the process of learning the foreign language are constant IMITATION, REPETITION, MEMORIZATION, AND APPLICATION (IRMA) of the patterns studied until they become matters of unconscious habit.

Finally, the fact that language is used for communication by the members of a culture in their daily social interactions implies that students involved in foreign language learning must use the target language for effective oral expression in real and natural situations that will reflect the culture and the society in which the language is used natively.

From what precedes, one can understand the reasons why children in a bilingual program should constantly participate by imitating, to the best of their ability, a good model presented in the classroom. They should also repeat, as accurately as possible, what they hear. In addition, they must memorize all this to the point of automatic habit. Finally, they should be given ample opportunity to apply what they have already imitated, repeated, and memorized (IRMA), in the classroom, in the playground, and at home. (3, pp. 180-5; 19, pp. 2-6.)

## HOW IS A SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNED?

Before we answer this question, it would be most appropriate to define the criteria for saying that a child has learned a second language. Learning a foreign or second language implies the ability of a child to understand it when spoken by native speakers of the language; to speak it correctly at conversational speed; and to read and write everything that he can say (20, pp. 10-18).

The main difficulty a child will encounter in learning a second language stems from the fact that he is already fluent to a degree in his native language. As a result of a child's ability to speak his mother tongue, the set of linguistic habits (phonological and syntactic), the system, and patterns of his own language are strongly fixed in his brain. When he goes to school to learn a second language -- to acquire a new set of linguistic habits -- he will have difficulties arising from the conflict between the two systems of linguistic habits. This conflict is bound to last long. The result will be that the child will use the two languages separately, in which case he will become a coordinate bilingual; or he will mix the two linguistic systems when he speaks, in which case he will be considered a compound bilingual. The situation that will prevail depends to a large extent upon who teaches the child, and how he is taught.

At this point, it is appropriate to ask: "What types of emotional problems does a child face when he studies a second language?" In attempting to answer this question we must realize that communication in a second-language classroom subjects both teacher and children to social and personality interactions. The teacher must be aware of the need to establish rapport with her class and be able to inspire confidence in the children, for they depend on her to provide a good model of the language and to lead them successfully through an array of rich experiences in the second language. Unless the teacher is aware of this need, boredom, anxiety, frustration, and embarrassment will set in and dominate the children. This cannot possibly be a healthy situation in any bilingual program. If the children are expected to imitate the teacher, repeat after her language model, and be actively engaged in learning the second language, they must feel at ease and free of inner tensions. (20, pp. 92-5.)

When a child begins to learn a second language, it is assumed that he has a fairly good control of the linguistic system of his native language. As stated above, learning a second language implies the acquisition of a new system of linguistic habits which will conflict with the system of linguistic habits of the native language. In the case of speakers of Spanish who are learning English as a second language,

> ...the student will unconsciously transfer the language habits of Spanish that he has mastered from birth on to his learning of English. When he speaks, he will use a foreign language (English) as a frame, but he will fill it with the phonemes of his native language and their variants; he will place stresses and pitches according to his native langauge patterns; and he will arrange words, phrases, and ideas in the manner which is familiar to him -- that of his own language....(4, p. 2.)

In order to solve problems of interference teachers need to understand what causes them. Linguists recommend that foreign language teachers become familiar with existing contrastive analyses of the children's native language and second language. These contrastive studies help teachers to become aware of problem areas and suggest practical ways of coping with them. When children are unable to repeat word or phrases correctly, when sound distortions persist in the speech of children learning a second language, it is because the mother-tongue linguistic system is interfering with the system of the second language being learned. One of the best ways of dealing with these problems, as suggested by linguists, consists of giving students intensive practice using linguistically-devised substitution drills. (19, pp. 25-34, 85-130; 8, pp. 1-12.)

Although interference from the sound system of the mother tongue is the learner's worst enemy, there are also syntactic and semantic interferences from the mother tongue. The basic techniques used to overcome these problems are well-planned pattern practice, substitution and transformation drills, etc., in which the students are asked to imitate a model presented by the teacher and to repeat to the point of producing automatic and accurate responses.

## WHY ARE AUDIO-LINGUAL TECHNIQUES USED IN BILINGUAL PROGRAMS?

We have said earlier that the manner in which linguists analyze languages has had considerable effect on the teaching methods and techniques used in foreign language and bilingual programs. Although a description of the audio-lingual method and the techniques associated with it has permeated the writing of this paper, we will now list the essential characteristics of this method, as stated by Carroll. (20, pp. 13-18; 2, pp. 140-151.)

> 1. Items are normally presented and learned in their spoken form before they are presented in their written form.... Language is primarily what is said and only secondarily what is written....

2. Teaching methods rest upon the careful, scientific analysis of the contrasts between the learner's language and the target language.... The results and studies of these contrasts are incorporated in the materials prepared for class and laboratory work.

3. Stress is laid on the need for overlearning of language patterns by a special type of drill known as pattern practice.... It is ... exercise in structural dexterity undertaken solely for the sake of practice, in order that performance may become habitual and automatic.

4. There is an insistence on the desirability, or even the necessity, of learning to make responses in situations which simulate "real-life" communication situation as closely as possible. ... In dialogues, new structures are carefully introduced and practiced in a matrix of allusions to another way of life and a different set of values. Unless the facts of persons and places are taken into account, as well as linguistic facts, we do not have the full dimension of language.

The above audio-lingual techniques are widely used in bilingual programs, and they represent the merging of the views and assumptions of linguists and psychologists on the nature of language and on how it is learned.

Because we learn to speak our native language long before we begin to read and write it and because writing is such an arbitrary and imperfect representation of the way we speak, linguists and psychologists agree that the four fundamental skills taught in second language programs should be understanding, speaking, reading, and writing, in this order. This explains why so much emphasis is placed on the imitation, repetition, memorization, and application (IRMA) of basic conversational sentences modeled by the teacher. When a child has learned to recognize and produce orally these basic patterns, then he is gradually led through the process of reading and writing everything he is able to say. In this manner, we try to approximate the type of learning process a child experiences when he is learning his mother tongue.

The second essential characteristic of the audio-lingual method is that it is based on the scientific contrastive analysis between the learner's language (Spanish) and the second language that is learned (English). This type of analysis will establish the similarities between the two languages, and will also discover their differences, as a means of predicting and describing the problem areas the children will encounter in their second-language learning process. If materials and techniques used in teaching the children are based on this linguistic analysis, the task of teaching them will be greatly facilitated and much more effective.

Since audio-lingual techniques make use of pattern practice, it is necessary that bilingual teachers understand why this type of drill is so valuable. Brooks (2, p. 275) defines pattern practice, thus:

> ... the learning of language structure through the repetition of utterances in which the patterns (of sound, order, form, and choice) either are identical or have only small and consistent differences. It makes the explanation of grammar largely unnecessary and encourages the function of analogy.

The purpose of pattern practice is to establish as habits the structures of the language, through constant and varied repetition drills. The language structures are carefully chosen and modeled by the teacher, so that children's incorrect responses will be reduced to a minimum.

Finally, if we agree that language is communication, then, in teaching a second language, we must try to structure situations for the children that will reproduce realistic communication situations as those employed by native speakers of the langauge in their everyday interactions. In other words, although structured in the early stages, the second language must be learned in as natural a setting as possible, not in an artificial drill situation. (20, p. 40.)

To conclude, no single method will provide answers to all the problems that teachers and children will encounter in a bilingual program. Nevertheless, experienced foreign language teachers, linguists, and psychologists agree that the audio-lingual techniques represent a sound and effective approach to the teaching and learning of second languages because they are based on scientific research dealing with the nature of language and how it is learned.

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# SOCIOLOGICAL AND ANTHROPOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION

MARGARET A. DAVIDSON

# INTRODUCTION

As teachers of the Bilingual Program you are aware that its major purpose is to contribute to the success and personal development of the Mexican-American child. In addition, the program is designed to assist in the cultural expansion and enrichment of our total society. Therefore, it is essential that you understand certain basic values, customs, and beliefs of the Mexican-American people so that ways can be found to build on their strengths. Specific problems they face, both as members of a minority group and as victims of poverty, must be understood to enable you, as their teachers, to develop techniques to compensate for these problems.

The existence of minority groups who are subjected to discrimination is in conflict with the American creed of freedom and equal opportunity for all. This creed is recognized and belief in it confirmed both officially and unofficially in the historical documents, mass media, literature and folklore of the land. The discrepancy between the American creed of freedom and equal opportunity and the American reality of discrimination and prejudice has been called the American Dilemma. (5:1070)

How is the American Dream of freedom and equal opportunity to be reconciled with the condition of America's racial and ethnic minorities? We are a pluralistic society built of many races and ethnic groups. This is our great strength. However, in a dynamic, pluralistic society there is a continual process of change in operation through the acculturation and assimilation of minority groups within the total culture. This process strengthens and enriches the total culture through the infusion of new ideas. But the process is hindered by an innate resistance to change which appears in the form of prejudice and discrimination.

It is the purpose of the Bilingual Program to assist the Mexican-American child as he moves into greater participation with his total culture, and, at the same time, encourage his continuing participation in his own specific culture so that he will have the strengths of each in order to have the greatest possible individual fulfillment which will enable him to make his greatest possible contribution.

## WHO ARE THE MEXICAN-AMERICANS?

Do they include all the native Spanish-speaking people of the Southwest? What are some of the basic attitudes and customs of this group? What are some of their problems? Why do they find resistance to and difficulty in entering the mainstream of society? What is ethnocentrism and what is its relation to prejudice? How can we deal more effectively with prejudice and conflicts in values to help the members of this group in their acculturation process? These are the kinds of questions that you as their teachers must consider as you seek to meet the challenge of the educational needs of these children. "The problem of educating the Spanish-speaking children is part of the problem of building and maintaining the democratic society to which this nation aspires." (4:195) Working toward the successful accomplishment of this goal is your opportunity as teachers in the Bilingual Program.

## SPANISH-SPEAKING PEOPLE OF THE SOUTHWEST

There are three major groups of Spanish-speaking people in the Southwest: the Mexican-Americans, the Spanish-Americans, and the Mexicans. The majority of the Spanish-speaking people in Texas are Mexican-Americans and most of the remaining members of this group are Mexicans. Very few

Spanish-Americans, the descendants of the original Spanish colonists to the Southwest, are found in the Spanish-speaking population in Texas; most Spanish-Americans are found in New Mexico and Colorado. (7:44)

The Mexican-Americans are persons of Mexican ancestry who can be identified as such because they still retain some of the customs, beliefs, and language of their Mexican ancestors. For the most part, these ancestors were of peasant stock who had lived for generations in poverty, superstition and illiteracy in Mexico. When they came to the United States they came in extreme poverty and over fifty per cent of the descendants are still living in a state of economic deprivation. (2:45)

The Mexicans are persons who were born in Mexico and are legal citizens of that nation. Most of the Mexicans expect to return to Mexico at some time after they have gained economic security or have learned a marketable skill. Most of this group are Mexican peasants with little or no formal schooling, and few, if any, vocational skills or financial resources. Usually they do not know the English language. Although most of this group plan to return to Mexico, many of them never do. Some of those who remain entered this country illegally which further complicates the problems they and their families face.

The Mexican-Americans and the Mexicans are of the same racial composition. Members of this group are descended from Mexican Indians and Spanish colonists. Many Mexican peasants are of almost pure Indian ancestry while others have varying degrees of Spanish blood from their Hispanic ancestors. The mixed Indian and Hispanic ancestry gives the group a unique cultural heritage which bears the marks of both groups of ancestors.

## BASIC CUSTOMS AND ATTITUDES

Many Mexican-Americans have a strong sense of identification with Mexico. This is often found even in third and fourth generation Mexican-Americans. The ease with which the language and customs are retained is fostered by proximity to Mexico, continuing contact with recent immigrants or visitors from Mexico (many of these Mexicans are close relatives of the Mexican-Americans), and the common practice of Mexican-Americans living in comparative isolation in communities composed almost entirely of members of their own ethnic group.

These ethnic colonies have developed through the desire for the security of a familiar cultural environment and for protection from the dominant culture and its discriminatory practices. The Anglo community usually views this isolation as "clannishness" and imposes further penalties through increased demands that Mexican-Americans conform by changing their customs, values, and language to those of the dominant culture.

In response to demands for change the Mexican-Americans draw even more closely together in order to preserve their culture which they feel is under attack and to protect themselves from the strains of change. Thus a vicious circle comes into operation: ethnocentrism functions to keep the Mexican-American as an identifiable member of his ethnic group and becomes a detriment to his acculturation and full participation in the dominant society. (We will consider the relationship between ethnocentrism and prejudice in the section dealing with the origin of prejudice and its operations.)

In the ethnic community the Mexican-Americans continue to live in much the same manner as their Mexican ancestors did. Mexican foods are prepared by the women of the family, Spanish is generally the first language of the Mexican-American and the language of the home. Family patterns are close-knit, male-centered, and generally quite authoritarian. The aged members live within the homes of their grown children or other relatives. They are treated with respect and usually contribute to the welfare of the family by caring for the infants, household chores, or tasks requiring patient manual dexterity. Frequently the Anglo, accustomed to the isolated nuclear family responds to the extended, cohesive Mexican-American family with such remarks as, "If they weren't so wrapped up in their families they might have time to make something of themselves."

The Mexican-American is considered to be independent of spirit and less preoccupied with material gains than the Anglo. This is part of the heritage from his Indian ancestors. The Mexican-American is also described as having a more leisurely attitude toward time and to be more present-oriented than future-oriented. This is considered part of the heritage from his Hispanic forefathers and the Hispanic culture in general. (11:331)

However, for those Mexican-American members with a history of many generations of poverty, a lack of security and stability are found to be a part of their behavior pattern. Such persons become apathetic and resigned. They come to believe the future is unforeseeable. They believe that working for delayed rewards is pointless and each day is lived for what pleasures, if any, it may bring. (4:81) Only the present has any reality; the future is too remote for concern and is left to "God's will" in an attitude of general resignation. (11:335) Such attitudes are derived primarily from the culture of poverty rather than from the Indian and Hispanic heritage of the Mexican-American. It should be noted that similar attitudes are found in many ethnic groups with long histories of continuous poverty.

## EDUCATIONAL ATTITUDES AND PROBLEMS

Traditionally in schools where Mexican-Americans comprise the majority of the pupil population, the primary instructional goal has been considered to be the teaching of the English language. The instructional program has usually been built around the basal reading program with little provision made for oral instruction, except in oral reading instruction, with the teacher supplying the unknown English words while the children repeat them after her. (6:46)

For Mexican-American children such an Anglo school is often a bewildering and defeating experience in an environment that they perceive as hostile. The cultural patterns of the Mexican Americans are often so different from those of the typical Anglo school that attempts to educate these children in the Anglo schools have constituted a major problem for this nation. No satisfactory solution to this problem has been reached. (3:107) It is to the problem of bewilderment and subsequent failure of the Mexican-American child in Anglo schools and the negative response to the school that such failure evokes from his parents, that the Bilingual Program is addressed. Anglo schools must find a way to bridge the cultural gap for these children. For generations the potential of these children has been neglected and the school has failed to tap a vital human resource. Both the Mexican-American and the total culture have suffered from a continuing failure to realize these potentials.

Within the context of generations of under-achievement and failure in the Anglo school we should not be surprised that Mexican-American parents are usually found to have a negative attitude toward the school and education in general. This negative attitude is due to the cultural difference and the seeming irrelevance of the educational opportunities offered to their children. There is often a mutual lack of understanding between the parents and the school. (4:81)

Because of this lack of mutual understanding, often the well-meaning teacher, in making home visits or in parent conferences, violates certain rules of Latin Etiquette. In turn, the parents also violate certain expected mores in response to the school's requests. The teacher is left with the feeling that the parents are uncooperative and have no interest in their children's education. On the other hand, the Mexican-American parent is left with the feeling that the teacher lacks respect for him and his culture.

The response to this confrontation is usually hostility on both sides. This is often the case when Anglo teachers insist that Mexican-Americans change the language of the home from Spanish to English. (3:110) Both the teacher and the parent are concerned with the welfare of the child. Cross-cultural understandings must be developed and communication established. From this new perspective, mutual respect can develop which will lead to the solution of the educational problems that have handicapped the Mexican-American for so long.

In an earlier study of the educational problems of Spanish-speaking children, Tireman pointed out that the attitudes of the teaching staff were of the utmost importance. He believed that if the teaching staff were open-minded and familiar with the problems of cultural differences among the children, the chances of a successful teaching situation would be greatly increased. The children's chances for educational achievement were considered best of all when their teachers were bilingual. (9:15)

It is through the implementation of a planned bilingual program in the schools that successful language learning in Spanish and in English can occur. With increased understanding, community acceptance and mutual respect will be promoted on the part of teachers and parents alike.

## ETHNOCENTRISM AND PREJUDICE

Mexican-Americans are generally considered members of an ethnocentric minority group who are subjected to discrimination in varying degrees. By a minority we mean a group of people who have less social power than the dominant group. Minority-dominant are polar opposites and are not necessarily in mathematical proportions. To be a minority, a group of people must share some characteristics which set them apart from the dominant people in the society (a different language, religion, race, or even historical past can set a people apart). Once the minority group is defined by the dominant culture, discriminatory practices are used against the group to deprive them of equal status and power. (10:18)

However, discrimination creates a reaction to itself and causes a culture of anti-discrimination to develop. Minority groups retaliate against the rejection of the dominant group and ethnocentric behavior results. Ethnocentrism is the tendency of groups to judge all other groups by the standards of one's own group. This causes a feeling of superiority within the group and serves as a basis for maintaining the stability of the group. Members choose to remain in the group rather than leave it to join an "inferior" group.

Ethnocentrism is at work when dominant groups reject minority performances regardless of their nature and content. (1:287) This is the case when the Anglo responds that Mexican-Americans are obviously inferior because so few of them hold professional or white collar jobs. Yet the Anglo often makes the reverse judgment and says of some Mexican-American who has achieved professional status that he is "pushy and trying to put on airs." This is the meaning of the saying, "In-group virtues are out-group vices." (1:94)

Ethnocentrism is also in operation when the Mexican-American refers to the Anglo as a "gringo." If the minority member must suffer hearing himself referred to as a "spick" or "messcan" then he can at least enjoy sneering at the "gringos."

Ethnocentrism works to make a group more cohesive yet alienates it further from other groups in the culture. The dominant society responds with greater prejudice and hostility to the development of ethnocentric behavior in minority groups. The minority group finds that it cannot win except by total assimilation of the dominant group. This is a price that many ethnic and racial minorities are not willing to pay for acceptance by the mass culture. (8:205)

In conclusion let us consider that contributions by the Mexican-American can enhance our total culture. The price of total assimilation and loss of cultural identity is too great to pay both for the Mexican-Americans and for the mass culture. Loss of individuality and unique cultural traits diminishes all and enhances none. Our total culture has been enriched by the Mexican-American influences throughout the Southwest. The speaker of two languages is doubly fortunate in his insight and participation in two cultures. As teachers of the Bilingual Program you have an opportunity to be a part of this great adventure as we work to bring about the realization of the American Dream.

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# PSYCHOLOGICAL BASES FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

BY

NANCY LEWIS

## INTRODUCTION

In this paper the writer will discuss the more important psychological foundations for work in bilingual education with primary-age children. The major areas to be covered are: the self-concept, developmental tasks of the primary-age child, acculturation through acquisition of a second language, the bilingual child and how he differs, school adjustment of the bilingual child, factors relating to success in learning a second language, and some psychological factors related to teaching a foreign (or second) language to elementary school children.

This paper is designed to review and re-enforce some of the basic knowledge of the psychology of the elementary-age child, which is a fundamental aspect of teacher preparation on the college level, and to introduce the teacher to information about bilingualism and the bilingual child, which is not often a part of teacher training. It seems fairly obvious that in any program the "how's" without the "why's" give the teacher little confidence in the materials she is working with and limited ability to deal with any new situation that is not "covered" in the Teacher's Guide. It is in hopes of answering some of the "why's" that this paper is submitted.

## THE SELF-CONCEPT

Combs and Snygg (9, p. 127) define the self-concept as "...those perceptions about self which seem most vital or important to the individual himself...those particular concepts of self which are such fundamental aspects that...This is the very essence of 'me' whose loss is regarded as personal destruction." Combs and Snygg go on to point out that in our society "adequate" personalities perceive themselves as "persons of dignity and integrity who belong and contribute to the world in which they operate." They see themselves as "adequate to deal with those aspects of life important to the achievement of need satisfaction in their culture (9, p. 240)."

Gillham (13, pp. 6-7) discusses the three "pictures" a child perceives when he comes to school: (1) the view he has of himself (2) the view of himself in relation to other people, which is an important influence on his view of himself (No. 1), and (3) the view of himself as he wishes to be. Too great a discrepancy between (1) and (3) leads to serious emotional problems for the child, and too often teachers lead students to conceptualize the "ideal self" so that it is far beyond their reach. Concluding her discussion of "self," Gillham points out that, "Discerning teachers are constantly on the alert for opportunities that will lead to self-enhancement for the one child -- or the many -- within the group."

Obviously, any child entering school as a first-grader may have either an essentially positive or an essentially negative self-concept, depending on his experiences, mainly at home and in the neighborhood, during the first six years of his life. But the Mexican-American child has a peculiar problem after he gets to school. The National Education Association, in its report The Invisible Minority, describes the problem in this way (19, p. 11):

> The harm done the Mexican-American child linguistically is paralleled -- perhaps even exceeded -- by the harm done to him as a person. In telling him that he must not speak his native language, we are saying to him by implication that Spanish and the culture which it represents are of no worth. Therefore (it follows), the people who speak Spanish are of no worth. Therefore (it follows again), this particular child is of no worth. It should come as no surprise to us, then, that he develops a negative self-concept...

Jenkins, Shacter, and Bauer (16, pp. 19-20) point out the importance of self-confidence, which is an element of an essentially positive self-concept, in providing the child with the initiative to "try new things, to meet and attempt to solve his problems." They state that if the child "...doubts himself, if he has already met too much discouragement, too many defeats, too much adverse criticism, he may be so insecure that he will be afraid to meet the demands of growing up." These authors discuss the role of "even well-meaning parents or teachers" in this kind of criticism, and appearances are that this is particularly true of the bilingual child who comes to school inadequate in two languages, particularly in the teacher's language, English.

Combs and Snygg (9, pp. 387-9) discuss in some detail "techniques that would be used by school which deliberately set out to develop adequate self-concepts." These particular techniques take on added meaning when looked at in conjunction with the bilingual education program, for it seems that this program provides a vehicle for the implementation of these techniques. The techniques are:

> (1) ...to provide each pupil with every possible opportunity to think of himself as a responsible citizen and a contributing member of society...

(2) ...to provide pupils with a wide variety of opportunities for success and appreciation through productive achievement...

(3) ...to provide pupils with a maximum of challenge and a minimum of threat.

## DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS

Robert J. Havighurst (14, p. 2) defines a developmental task as "...a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks." He delineates the following as the developmental tasks associated with middle childhood (the early elementary years):

(1) Learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games

(2) Developing wholesome attitudes toward oneself as a growing organism

(3) Learning to get along with age-mates

(4) Learning an appropriate masculine or feminine social role

(5) Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing, and calculating

(6) Developing concepts necessary for everyday living

(7) Developing conscience, morality, and a scale of values

(8) Achieving personal independence

(9) Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions

Obviously in order to deal with these tasks (particularly Nos. 5, 6, 7, and 8) within the context of the school, the child must already possess a command of the language. Several of the tasks (e.g., Nos. 2, 3, 4, and 5) can be achieved only by a child with an essentially positive self-concept. Can the culturally deprived and linguistically different child possibly work toward these goals at the same time of life as the average child? Would a bilingual program assist him in so doing?

The description by Gesell and Ilg of the "average" five-year-old (by which, they mean, "average middle-class") insofar as language development is concerned, leads us to see just how different the culturally deprived, bilingual child is. We can deduce from this description, and from Havighurst's list of tasks, the problems they will inevitably face. Gesell and Ilg have this to say about the average five-year-old (12, p. 378):

> In the language arts, the five-year-old is relatively facile and well-balanced. He not only likes to talk, he likes to listen; and loves to be read to time and time again. He also looks at books alone and may pretend to read. He may recognize some of the capital letters, pick out familiar words on a page or placard and indulge in a little simple spelling. But he is probably more alert with his ears than with his eyes.

In addition they comment that the average first-grader (12, p. 380) "...often speaks with vehemence and aggressiveness... likes to use big words; and he is a spontaneous commentator on his own activities and those of others."

Bossard and Boll emphasize the importance of the group in the development of the early elementary-age child. They refer to the age as "the gang stage" and comment (3, p. 367) that "social consciousness develops rapidly, the chief interest is in group activities, group loyalty becomes highly important, ... there is growing susceptibility to social approval and disapproval...." Not only does this explanation help to provide us with a rationale for the bilingual program (helping to make the child a part of the group), but it also gives us an insight into "how" the program might be conducted (with many group activities).

## ACCULTURATION THROUGH ACQUISITION OF A SECOND LANGUAGE

The authorities seem to agree that as an individual learns a second language he becomes much more "in tune" with the culture of those who speak the language. Lambert (18, p. 39) outlines the theory in this manner:

> ...an individual successfully acquiring a second language gradually adopts various aspects of behavior which characterize members of another linguistic-cultural group... the more proficient one becomes in a second language, the more he may find that his place in his own original membership group is modified at the same time as the other linguistic-cultural group becomes something more than a reference group for him.

This position is reiterated in the article by Gardner and Lambert (11, p. 267).

In addition, Lambert (18, pp. 42-3) sees a real difference in the attitudes expressed by bilingual children toward the "other" language community. In his words:

> ...bilingual children have markedly more favorable attitudes toward the 'other' language community in contrast to monolingual children... the parents of bilingual children are believed by their children to hold the same strongly sympathetic attitudes, in contrast to the parents of monolingual children, as though the linguistic skills in a second language, extending to the point of bilingualism, are controlled by family-shared attitudes toward the other linguistic-cultural community.

If there were no other raison d'etre for the implementation of a bilingual program in communities where there are at least two distinctive linguistic-cultural groups, this "acculturation factor" seems to justify the program in its entirety. Reduction of the tension between linguistic-cultural groups would automatically follow the changes in attitude, and this, in itself, is rationale for the program.

## THE BILINGUAL CHILD AND HOW HE DIFFERS

Since one of the major populations this program is designed to serve is that group which is nominally bilingual (but actually deprived in two languages) when they enter first grade, it is important that we investigate some of the ways in which this group of children differs from the "average" (who were, at least partially, described in the first two sections of this paper).

After pointing to the importance of an essentially positive self-concept, the bulletin of the California State Department of Education (6, pp. 14-15) makes these observations about Mexican-American children:

> ...Self-assurance brings zest to learning; rejection, or a feeling of inadequacy brings hostility or withdrawal... due to the difficulties which Spanish-speaking children may encounter in the use of English and in asjusting to a social environment which differs from that to which they are accustomed, they have many problems which other children do not have.

The bulletin goes on to point out that because most teachers come from backgrounds which are very different from that of these students, it is extremely important that the teachers find out the "facts regarding their pupils' families and community living (6, p. 15)."

Havighurst makes some comments on language and the lower-class child which assume particular relevance when the child is both lower-class and linguistically different. He says (14, p. 13):

> For the lower-class child, however, language does not count so much. His father handles things rather than symbols in order to make a living. His family does not train him as carefully in the correct use of language.

For many years it has been assumed (and studies have "proved") that bilingual children were less intelligent than monolingual children. Lambert and Peal, however, found evidence to the contrary in their study of ten-year-old English-French bilinguals in Montreal, and their findings are most convincing. They summarize their research in this way (20):

> Contrary to previous findings this study found that bilinguals performed significantly better than monolinguals on both verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests... They have a language asset, are more facile in concept formation, and have a greater mental flexibility... bilinguals appear to have a more diversified set of mental abilities than the monolinguals.

There seems to be no doubt that there are several ways in which the bilingual child is different from the "average." Some of these ways have to do with his social class; some are related to family pressures (to be discussed in a later section); and some are due to the fact that the society in which the school functions seems to have done all it can to give him an essentially negative self-concept. Only the "intelligence factor" is on the positive side of the ledger, and many authorities disagree with the position stated by Lambert and Peal. It is important that teachers familiarize themselves with the ways in which these children are different and do their best to change those conditions which are subject to change. A bilingual program in the elementary school is one such vehicle for change.

## THE FAMILY'S ROLE IN BILINGUALISM

During the early elementary years there is real conflict between the family's culture and that of the peer group. Bossard and Boll (3, p. 367) describe the problem in this manner:

> ...proper orientation toward the other group is developed within the family: students with an integrative disposition to learn French had parents who were also integrative and sympathetic to the French community...the integrative motive is not due to having more experience with French at home but more likely stems from a family-wide attitudinal disposition.

Abraham gives a great deal of attention to the American family which does not speak English in the home. He contends that unless the family has recently immigrated and is simply in the process of learning English, the fact that they fail to use English at home is symptomatic of an important attitude. In his words (1, p. 46):

> If immigrant parents make no decided effort to learn and use English in their daily life, it is probable that they also cling to the customs and traditions of their native land. Whenever this is true, it is of deep significance in all educational problems concerning their children. The essence of the problem of instruction lies in the fact that the child with whom we are dealing is finding his way from one culture to another. He may be struggling with antagonistic forces if his school environment and his home surroundings differ too widely and if either is too insistent in its demands upon him.

It is apparent that the attitude of the family is extremely important in a child's ability to acquire a second language. Teachers and administrators who are attempting to implement a bilingual program must involve the parents of their students and should set up the machinery for so doing from the very beginning.

## SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT OF THE BILINGUAL CHILD

A child's movement from the environment of the home to that of the school may cause adjustment problems under the best of circumstances. The bilingual child has additional problems which make adjustment even more difficult. Caplan and Ruble (7, p. 21) emphasize those factors which affect bilingual children:

(1) Bilingual children lack essential communication skills, and this has an adverse effect on their achievement as measured by standardized test scores.

(2) They show that the values held in the home are different from those held by the community as a whole.

(3) They have not been encouraged at home to value certain personality characteristics which contribute to school achievement.

(4) They are culturally different from monolingual students.

The California State Department of Education suggests to teachers some of the reasons that Mexican-American children show signs of emotional disturbance rather early in their school careers. The Department's delineation is as follows (6, p. 19):

(1) Overage in grades,

(2) Interrupted school experience due to illness or changes in school,

(3) Personal appearance and cleanliness below group standards,

(4) Cultural and family values and standards different from those of the group, and

(5) Personal ambitions or interests which have little opportunity for fulfillment.

A child's reaction to threatening aspects of the school situation may be so severe that it results in a school phobia which is, as defined by Chess (8, p. 177), "an interference with a child's school attendance due to anxiety...." Chess goes on to suggest the following method of treatment (8, p. 186):

> If the phobic reaction is traced to an environmental trauma, treatment is focused on manipulation of the environment and, when possible, on the elimination of the disturbing circumstances.

It would appear that a bilingual program administered by knowledgeable and understanding teachers and other school personnel can do a great deal to alleviate many of the problems described above. It would seem logical that if the "language-culture" threat were removed for the bilingual child, many cases of school phobia (or "near-school phobia") might never appear at all.

## FACTORS RELATING TO SUCCESS IN LEARNING A SECOND LANGUAGE

There seem to be several factors which most authorities agree are important for success in learning a second language. Some of these are beyond the control of the school, while others are definitely dependent on the school's action. All are worthy of note for teachers. Tireman and Zintz define the factors which will facilitate second-language learning in this way (21, pp. 310-1):

1. Desire - greatly influenced by the language spoken in the home and the general emotional climate in which the language is presented
2. Amount of exposure
3. Socioeconomic status ("...a foreign-speaking person rises in the economic scale as he learns to speak English" 21, p. 311)
4. Influence of leaders in the learner's native linguistic-cultural community
5. The use of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction
6. Educational adjuncts - e.g., mass media
7. Common elements, e.g., alphabet, common derivation, etc., of the two languages
8. Native intelligence.

Lambert (18, p. 39) points to the importance of acculturation, as discussed in Section 3 of this paper, when he says:

> The learner's ethnocentric tendencies and his attitudes toward the other group are believed to determine his success in learning the other language.

And, finally, Gardner and Lambert (11, p.267) talk about the importance of the student's need to communicate in the second language as a factor in his success in learning, when they say:

> It is our contention then that achievement in a second language is dependent upon essentially the same type of motivation that is apparently necessary for the child to learn his first language.

## FACTORS RELATED TO TEACHING A SECOND LANGUAGE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The need to succeed is a universal one and one which the teacher must constantly keep in mind as she deals with children. Kalodner points out that success (and the rewards that must go along with it) are a motivating factor not only for the child who has succeeded, but for the other members of the class as well. He says (17, p. 237):

> Once the teacher recognizes this need for success as a basic motivating element in directing the behavior of the student, it can be used as an effective educational tool... Success seems to be contagious. Not only does the individual student try to learn more, but his peers may empathize with him and they in turn work harder and learn more. Classrooms in which students succeed have a certain atmosphere. An 'electric' air that ... sparks the greatest human force - the desire to learn.

The bilingual program can and should provide a great many success experiences for the student. For those who come to school linguistically handicapped, this will be a particularly new and exciting experience.

Bumpass can be considered representative of the authorities who have stated viewpoints concerning the teaching of English as a second language. One of the points she stresses most is that "...the younger the speaking child is, the more easily he absorbs languages (5, p. 5)." She believes the optimum age for readily absorbing a second language is between four and eight. Perhaps in the not-too-distant future there will be free public kindergartens for all, and this instruction could start at age four.

Following are some other psychological principles stressed by Bumpass. Careful scrutiny of these will offer the teacher insight into the rationale for many of the activities and teaching techniques which are called for in the SEDL Bilingual Program (5, pp. 16-18):

(1) Proceed from the known to the unknown -- learning situations should be close to those which the child knows proceeding from translation in the mother tongue.

(2) No utterance should be tried that is of greater complexity than the children are capable of making in their own language.

(3) Use very simple apparatus and equipment.

(4) Choose materials that will fulfill emotional and intellectual needs. The child should derive pleasure from his work, and no materials should go beyond his cultural background nor be above or below his age and interest levels.

(5) Interest must be motivated in each activity. Use pictures and props which emit spontaneous expression. Provide many success experiences.

(6) Vocabulary must be meaningful in order to provide functional practice of the new language.

(7) Children must practice each concept until it becomes automatic.

# CONCLUSIONS

In this paper an attempt has been made to point out some of the psychological foundations for the bilingual program and dealing with the bilingual child so that the teacher will understand the "why's" behind what she is doing, as well as the "how to's."

Whether a child sees himself in essentially positive or essentially negative terms (his self-concept) is an extremely influential factor in determining his success at school (and in everything else, for that matter). The bilingual program taught by a perceptive and understanding person can be a strong factor in assisting the child to see himself in positive terms.

Developmental psychologists have defined the "developmental tasks" of middle childhood, i.e., they have described the life tasks that an average child of this age should master. Because many of these tasks depend upon a command of the language, the linguistically different child is "behind" the average child from the very beginning of his school career. A bilingual program can assist in narrowing the gap.

As a child masters a second language, he also becomes natively, "in tune" with the culture of those who speak that language natively, and his attitudes toward the other group become correspondingly more favorable.

The bilingual child is different from the monolingual child in several, rather basic, aspects, and it is extremely important that the teacher familiarize herself with these differences as she tries to "reach" these children.

The language that is spoken in the home and the attitude that a child's family holds toward the second language and the culture which it represents are extremely important factors in the child's success.

The bilingual child is faced with a series of difficult problems as he attempts to adjust to the school situation, in addition to those faced by average children. A bilingual program can help to alleviate these problems.

Authorities have printed out several factors which determine success in learning a second language. Some of the more important of these are: desire, amount of exposure, socioeconomic status, influence of leaders, use of the mother tongue in instruction, educational adjuncts, common elements in the language, intelligence, attitude toward the other group, and need.

Authorities have defined rather specific concepts which will assist the teacher in working with second-language learners. These provide the rationale for the procedures which the bilingual program calls for the teacher to implement.

Boyd describes in a few words the *sine qua non* of the bilingual program (4, p. 313):

> Only when teachers make children feel comfortable in school can education be successful. We can achieve bilingualism as an educational objective when we achieve human acceptance as an education objective.

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# MODULE 1

# DISRUPTION, DISENGAGEMENTS, AND BEHAVIOR CONTROL

(BOOKLET 7)

BY

NANCY LEWIS

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# DISRUPTION, DISENGAGEMENTS, AND BEHAVIOR CONTROL

(Booklet 7)

Author: Nancy Lewis

## GOALS

Guide Booklet 7, "Disruption, Disengagements, and Behavior Control," is designed for use by teachers who are working in a bilingual education program utilizing SEDL bilingual materials. Careful study of this instructional unit and the accompanying videotape should help the teacher to recognize disengagement and disruptive behavior in her classroom and should provide her with suggestions for effectively controlling such behavior.

## OBJECTIVES

1. The teacher-learner will define and recognize disengagement in her students.
2. The teacher-learner will define and recognize disruptive behavior in her students.
3. The teacher-learner will define and know the limits of pupil attention span.
4. The teacher-learner will know how to use her knowledge of the limits of pupil attention span in planning her presentations.
5. The teacher-learner will be able to compute a disengagement-disruption index for any given classroom situation.
6. The teacher-learner will define which levels of distruption-disengagement are "reasonable," "serious enough to demand teacher attention," and a "serious discipline situation."

7. The teacher-learner will list common causes of disengagement and disruption among pupils in the bilingual program.

8. The teacher-learner will define and recognize verbal and non-verbal behavior control methods.

9. The teacher-learner will view verbal control of behavior in comparison to total amount of teacher talk.

10. The teacher-learner will describe teacher behavior in terms of whether or not it elicits disengagement and disruptive behavior.

11. The teacher-learner will list effective methods of classroom control which are in keeping with the goals of the bilingual program.

RATIONALE (for the teacher)

Achievement of the objectives listed above will assist the teacher in obtaining better classroom management and control so that the classroom atmosphere will be more conducive to learning. Only when such an atmosphere prevails can the goals of the bilingual education program (or *any* education program, for that matter) be implemented.

RATIONALE (theoretical foundations)

Classroom teachers see the need for effective classroom management and control without theorists' explaining the "why's." There is a need, however, for some discussion of what effective discipline is, what factors cause a breakdown in classroom control, and what methods have proved effective in maintaining a classroom atmosphere which is conducive to learning.

The authorities begin their discussion of discipline with a definition of terms. Petersen (8, p. 101) gives this definition of discipline: "... the constructive guidance of children toward the development of healthful social relationships and desirable social behavior as well as the extent of social harmony resulting from such guidance." Bossone (1, p. 218) gives essentially the same definition and goes on to say that this is brought about by "desirable, effective classroom management." There is agreement among writers in the field that the only effective discipline is that which leads toward self-discipline. Klausmeier *et al* (3, p. 523) describes the purposes of classroom discicline in this way:

> The purposes of discipline are twofold: to help the child break from dependence on adults for direction and control to self-direction and self-discipline, and to establish orderly working conditions in the classroom so that learning activities will proceed simultaneously.

Petersen (8, p. 104) is of the opinion that the effectiveness of classroom discipline can be measured only in terms of whether or not it leads toward "self-discipline, which involves self-direction, self-reliance, and self-control."

Langdon and Stout (4, p. 10) make two further points about classroom discipline which are quite relevant:

> 1. Discipline is continuous, not occasional... Discipline at its best is woven into schoolroom living in a natural, friendly way as guidance... it is a part of helping the children with their learning.
>
> 2. Discipline is not something you do *to* students, but something you do *with* them. (It is a) way of making useful the daily living together.

Writers in the field of elementary education discuss many causes of discipline problems in the classroom, and teachers should be cognizant of the wide variety of situations which cause problems. In our discussion, however, we will focus on those factors which seem to be particularly applicable to a bilingual education program.

Petersen (8, pp. 108-11) lists five major causes of breakdowns in classroom management:

1. Uninteresting teaching-learning situations
2. Unwise academic pacing
3. Unhealthy classroom environment
4. Lack of organization
5. Weak teaching personality.

The second of these seems particularly relevant to our purposes. Petersen says (8, pp. 108-9):

> Poor discipline frequently results from the teacher's failure to gauge correctly the academic abilities of his students. Assignments that are too long, too difficult, or for which the directions are not clear will frequently cause resentment and frustration. On the other hand, assignments and content lacking challenge are quickly dispensed with, leaving children much time on their hands to do nothing.

Langdon and Stout (4, p. 16) also talk about "pacing" as a cause of problems, but in somewhat different terms:

> Hurrying, pushing, and rushing the children serves only to make them nervous, tense, and upset. They need to be busy, to learn to get about their work, and to get it done, but not in a pushing, rushing way. The days should be planned so that there is time for what needs to be done. Many a child misbehaves because he is prodded too much.

Another problem that may arise in bilingual programs is the teacher's ignoring the very good and the very poor students because she has planned principally for the average. Bossone (1, p. 219) says:

> Most teachers tend to plan only for the average students, because courses of study they follow are designed mainly for the average. They often forget that it is the brilliant and slow students who usually cause the teacher the most difficulty in regard to classroom discipline because these students do not have enough interesting and meaningful activities to occupy them.

Snyder (9, p. 245) cites failure to reckon with the universal need for success as a major cause of discipline problems. He writes:

> If success is not forthcoming in arithmetic, reading, music, art, physical education, or some other socially acceptable activity, we can expect the child to become successful in a socially unacceptable way.

Snyder, using the self-concept theory as a tool for understanding behavior, suggests the following as a method of coping with the problem (9, p. 244):

> ... the behavior of this child reflects the way he 'defines the situation.' Thus, if we can help the child to 'well-define the situation,' we can expect a change in behavior... The student's concept of his academic abilities largely determines his behavior within the school situation.

Because the cultural-linguistic status of the children in the bilingual education program often makes them "socially unacceptable," Lorber's comments on disruptive behavior are relevant here (5, p. 366):

> ... children socially unacceptable to their classmates tend to manifest poor behavior in the classroom characterized by disruptive, attention-seeking acts... Socially unsuccessful children reacting to their social distress through the manifesta-

> tion of unapproved and inappropriate public behavior should be guided toward more effective and acceptable means of resolving and responding to their social problems and toward more constructive ways of reacting to frustration.

Finally, a teacher's lack of concern with pupil attention span, defined by Good (2, p. 47) as "the extent or limit of the ability of a person to attend to or concentrate on something," can be a major cause of disengagement and disruptive behavior. Because the attention span, according to Good, varies with "age, physical, mental, and emotional condition, and the nature of the material," it is difficult to set up specific time limits for any given activity. It is essential, however, that the teacher be sensitive to this aspect of her class's behavior as she plans her presentations.

Booklet 7 and the accompanying videotapes discuss at some length verbal and non-verbal methods of behavior control. Petersen (8, pp. 112-3) has this to say concerning verbal control: "The teacher's voice can play a major role in influencing the behavior of pupils." When the teacher raises her voice, she is usually just adding to the noise. But, "... deliberately lowering his voice, sometimes almost to a whisper, has a quieting effect upon the situation." When verbal control seems preferable, Petersen (8, p. 115) stresses emphasis on the positive when she recommends:

> ... the positive statement of desired behavior, the use of praise and encouragement instead of criticism and fault finding, and constructive suggestions to children as to what they should do rather than commands only to stop what they are doing...

Petersen also emphasizes that non-verbal behavior control methods are often more effective than verbal. She says (8, pp. 112-3):

> Many teachers find it effective not to use their voices at all to gain the attention of pupils. Such teachers may often merely wait for quiet to descend on the group, or go to the chalkboard without saying a word and write directions or a note asking for immediate attention. Often, also, a pleasant signal will help, such as a chord on the piano... signals may also be used to control the behavior of an individual child -- shaking the head, putting fingers to the lips, or frowning... Similar to the use of signals is proximity control... the beneficial effect of simply standing by an individual's desk momentarily... or asking him to sit next to you.

This background material, giving various authorities' definitions of classroom discipline, opinions as to the causes of breakdown in discipline, and opinions as to the most effective methods of behavior control, should help the teacher to study Booklet 7 and view the videotape with insight, so that she can incorporate the suggestions given in her own classroom behavior.

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# MODULE 2

# A RATIONALE FOR MODELING AND DRILL MANAGEMENT TEACHING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED IN BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

(BOOKLET 1)

BY

PEDRO I. COHEN

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# A RATIONALE FOR MODELING AND DRILL MANAGEMENT TEACHING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED IN BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

(Booklet 1)

Author: Pedro I. Cohen

## GOALS

Inservice teachers will show more confidence in the teaching-learning strategies and techniques of classroom management for development of proficiency in language usage as detailed in Guide Booklet 1, and they will be able to work more efficiently with the Bilingual Education Program.

## OBJECTIVES

At the end of the use of this module, the inservice teacher should be able to demonstrate her understanding of how to work confidently and effectively with the Bilingual Education Program by being able to:

1. Explain why modeling techniques are important and necessary in the development of language proficiency in children.
2. Explain why drill management techniques are important and necessary in the development of language proficiency in children.
3. View a film made by a demonstration teacher and discriminate:
    a. Right modeling techniques from wrong ones
    b. Right drill management strategies from wrong ones
    c. Record the strategies employed by the demonstration teacher and complete the exercises in Guide Booklet 1 with 100% accuracy.

4. Identify the strengths and weaknesses of her own teaching behavior as she views a videotape of her and her students working through a lesson.

RATIONALE (for the teacher)

As a beginning teacher in this Bilingual Education Program, you will find that the method and techniques recommended are totally new to you. Yet, you want to feel proud that you are doing a good job. You know, of course, that you will be under many kinds of pressures. But, unless you thoroughly understand why you have to use these teaching-learning strategies and techniques, you will feel frustrated and incompetent about your classroom performance.

The purpose of this unit of instruction is to provide you with a documented justification for every strategy you are going to use from the first day of class on. The unit is also designed to help you improve your teaching abilities, so that you will be spared some of the stress which your responsibility as a bilingual teacher implies. This unit should help you to understand both the why and the how of using the Bilingual Education Program.

RATIONALE (theoretical foundation for strategies)

When you start using the materials developed for this Bilingual Program, you will be faced with the need of having to learn two teaching strategies called modeling and drill management. Since these techniques are unfamiliar to you, a brief description of them is offered in Guide Booklet 1, pp. 2-4. Yet, you may question the validity of these techniques and their effectiveness in bilingual programs. The success of these materials lies entirely on how well and completely you understand and use the key strategies recommended in working with this Bilingual Program. For that reason, this instructional unit has been written with the purpose of explaining to you, as clearly and as simply as possible, the rationale behind modeling and drill management techniques, and their importance in the development of the ability to understand, speak, read, and write well in both Spanish and English.

It has long been accepted that the four skills to be developed in second language study are understanding, speaking, reading, and writing. The method advocated for the development of these language skills is the audio-lingual. This approach to language teaching makes extensive use of imitation, repetition, memorization, and application (IRMA) of language structures to the point of habitual response.

The importance of imitation in learning is emphasized by Bandura and Walters:

> Imitation plays an important role in the acquisition of deviant, as well as conforming behavior. ... In some cases the amount of learning shown by the observer can, in fact, be as great as that shown by the performer (2, p. 47).

It is logical to assume that when children imitate, they copy the patterns of a model. In bilingual programs, children are not expected to invent language; they are not able to produce what they have not been taught previously. (14, p. 63) The teacher's responsibility is not only to teach the foreign language, but also to minimize the possibility of errors. For this reason, one of the most important duties of the bilingual teacher is to serve as an excellent model of the language, so that the children will imitate her and learn to speak correctly.

That good models are particularly appropriate and valuable for second-language learning is acknowledged by experts in the field:

> In language learning, as in all of life's activities, the model plays a most significant role. The model must be accurate, especially when the language is to be learned in the elementary school. ... But there must be other models, a constant stream of models. There can be on film, on tape or record, on T.V., or natives can be brought in several times a week or a month. Saturating children with good models using the language structured for children and their interests prepares them for entering into the total language situation. Thus, such models put the children in close psychological relationships with the experiences to be acquired (8, p. 125).

This point is further clarified by Brooks,

> The language class, at early levels, is essentially a drill session, with learnings modeled by the teacher and gradually incorporated by the student into the repertoire of his own behavior patterns (3, p. 143).

and by Rivers:

> It is manifestly better, therefore, that the beginning student be provided with a model of the correct response which he can imitate as in a matched-dependent situation, rather than be left to try and work out his own version (14, p. 63).

The preceding paragraphs have served to explain the need for the bilingual teacher to use modeling as a valuable technique in teaching a second language. Let us now sketch out what you, as a bilingual teacher, can accomplish with your students through the effective use of modeling as a technique.

1. When the teacher models to the class, they are carefully guided to speak the foreign language correctly, and consequently, will not be frustrated by being asked to produce language they are not familiar with (11, p. 38); (7, p. 91).
2. By imitating a good model, students will promptly develop good and automatic linguistic habits.
3. Models enable students to engage in some type of controlled conversation from the very beginning (13, p. 18).
4. They will also acquire the ability to speak with good pronunciation, intonation, stress, and rhythm.
5. Most important, students will constantly have a chance to engage in foreign language communication (3, p. 143).
6. Constant imitation of a good model will increase the students' ability to speak without errors (5, p. 98).
7. This will lead students to develop confidence in the use of the second language they are studying.
8. If students imitate the model correctly, they will make fewer mistakes, and, as a result, they will get more frequent positive reinforcements (9, p. 353).
9. Having been well trained in listening and speaking, the students will acquire more easily the skills of reading and writing the language (15, p. 20-22).
10. Finally, if students imitate a model accurately, their learning to understand, speak, read, and write the language will be quicker and better (1, p. 3).

Another key set of techniques used in bilingual programs is drill management. A description of this technique with practical suggestions on how to use it in the classroom is found in Guide Booklet 1, pp. 1-4. At this point, you may ask: "Why are drill management techniques so valuable?" The answer will be given in the following paragraphs.

When a teacher models to the whole class or to some subgroups, she gives support and security to shy and sensitive children. A hesitant child might feel embarrassed to repeat a pattern after the teacher, if he is the only one in the class asked; but as a member of a large group, his confidence builds up and makes him ready to participate. Especially when children are asked to repeat a new or difficult pattern modeled by the teacher, choral repetition builds their confidence. In addition, this is an excellent method for teaching correct intonation and rhythm, because it forces students to work together as a unit. Perhaps the most valuable contribution of repetition by the total class lies in the fact that it offers repeated opportunities to every pupil for active participation in using the foreign language. (6, p. 49; 13, p. 17.)

Common practice is for teachers to model to the total class, then to smaller groups, and finally to individual students (4, p. 23). When the teacher models to subgroups, she can spot-check more easily a student who is having difficulties in imitating her. In order to give this child a sense of achievement, and to make sure that he will correct his problems, the teacher will model to him (5, p. 98). On occasion, the teacher may wish to check on a student's response or to get some distracted student more personally involved in the learning situation. In this case, too, modeling to individual pupils is very effective. (13, p. 17; 10, p. 7.) It is good practice for the teacher, before modeling to individual children who may be shy or hesitant, to be reasonably sure that the student will succeed in his repetition of the model. This is important for the student not to lose face in front of peer group. (13, p. 17.) Finally, modeling to indiviudal pupils will assure the teacher that every child will have a chance to understand and use the foreign language with each structure.

Bilingual teachers often ask questions, such as "How much modeling and repetition should students get?" "What happens when students get bored?" You must constantly be sensitive to children's reactions and ready to make changes as they are needed. Try to remember the following points:

1. How many times you should model to the whole class, to a subgroup, and to individual children will depend upon whether you are introducing new material or reviewing material already studied. Considerations about whether the structure presented is similar to one found in the native language or not will also determine how many times you should model the same structure. (5, pp. 68-9.) Experts seem to agree that from two to five models should be sufficient.

2. The same limitations hold for the number of repetitions you should elicit from children. In addition, you must remember that there is a limit to the amount of repetition which is effective. Boredom and anxiety may easily set in if a class is drilled long after the children have satisfactorily demonstrated their ability to use the language structures taught. (14, p. 68-70.)

3. Finally, modeling to a class, group, or individual children and having them repeat in order to obtain automatic production of correct responses is only the means you, as a bilingual teacher, will use to lead children gradually to a much more rewarding goal: to be able to use the language freely. (12, p. 21.)

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# MODULE 3

# VERBAL REWARDS

(BOOKLET 5)

BY

MARK W. SENG

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# VERBAL REWARDS

(Booklet 5)

Author: Mark W. Seng

## PUPROSE

The purpose of this paper is to explain how verbal rewards help children express themselves more fluently and more confidently. A system for using rewards which accounts for types and patterns of rewards is also briefly analyzed. A rationale is given for the system which encourages maximum group participation initially, providing students with appropriate language models. Attention can then be systematically directed toward individual students to enhance oral language development and self confidence as well. The rationale underlying the use of rewards is then outlined. The basic assumption is that the teacher who understands this rationale and can demonstrate systematic use of verbal rewards can help children develop oral language skills more effectively.

## OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this module, the teacher will be able to:

1. Identify what are and are not considered verbal rewards.
2. Demonstrate understanding of the coding technique for tabulating classroom use of rewards in the brief, written examples.
3. Identify and chart use of rewards by a demonstration teacher on videotape or film.
4. Determine ratios or percentages pertaining to types and patterns of verbal rewards.

5. Identify appropriate and inappropriate reward strategies as described in the sample written descriptions of classroom behavior as well as in videotaped or filmed classroom episodes.

6. Use various strategies while being videotaped.

7. Code her own videotape, and analyze her own appropriate and inappropriate use of verbal reward strategies.

RATIONALE (for the teacher)

How can the teacher help children learn to speak well and motivate them to try to learn? The small child needs both the opportunity to practice, as well as encouragement to motivate him to keep trying. One might call such encouragement, praise, recognition, reward, or reinforcement. One of the easiest ways to reward a child for success is to praise him. When used systematically, psychologists call this method verbal reward or verbal reinforcement. Skill and tact in using verbal encouragement comprise one of the teacher's most important techniques in helping students learn. What she says, and to whom are central to verbal reward strategies.

Children do not learn to speak a new language unless they have many opportunities to practice. Teachers are sometimes surprised to find how much of classroom talk is done by teachers. If the teacher talks more than half the time, as is not unusual, the twenty-five or more students will not have very much time left to develop the physical skills needed to produce appropriate speech. One task then is to find out how much of the available time the teacher or her students talk. A second task is to suggest some guidelines as to what is an effective balance of teacher, class, group, and individual talk. Experienced teachers realize how much words of praise can mean to children. When systematically used, encouragement accelerates the child's ability to catch and correct his own errors. The child then moves toward self-confidence. After the teacher has practiced and mastered systematic verbal reward strategies, she may intuitively use verbal reinforcement in a natural manner.

The skilled teacher offers encouragement to all students and does not overlook some children for long periods of time. Students will seek her words of recognition. Because those words are important, students will pay close attention to them. Consequently, in addition to serving as *encouragement* for students, praise can serve a second purpose, that of providing an additional *good language model*. One can see the wisdom of rewarding students by using complete sentences - as often as is natural for the teacher. Praise or reinforcement not only motivates the students to obtain it, but equally important, *reinforces* what they have just been praised for. Students are more likely to use an appropriate sentence or pronounce a word correctly if they have been reinforced for having done so previously. Verbal rewards serve at the same time as *feedback* to the student telling him that what he said was correct. If the teacher says "OK" she informs the student that he was right, but because this expression is overused there is little reinforcement. Verbal rewards, then serve four functions: they strengthen the behavior they follow, they serve as feedback to the student about the correctness of his response, they motivate the student to experiment with more language to obtain additional rewards, and they serve as oral language models for the entire class.

What to say and to whom are the two variables dealt with in the manual. The teacher may use words, phrases, or complete sentences (what) directed toward a class, a part of the class, or an individual student (to whom). The most powerful effect is realized by directing a complete sentence (e.g., "That was expressed very well, John.") toward a single individual. John received direct praise while the class heard a perfectly modeled sentence. Of course, with limited time, many verbal rewards will be directed toward a portion of the class or to the entire class.

RATIONALE (for the strategy)

A psychological definition of a "reinforcer" is anything which when presented immediately after a response will result in the same response occurring more frequently in the future (e.g., Staats & Staats, 1964). An interesting aspect of this definition is that it does not prejudge what is and is not a reinforcer. Teachers assume that certain things are rewarding. However, this may vary from student to student. If students like and respect their teacher, verbal recognition will probably fit the psychological definition given previously. The definition states that to be a reinforcer, it must result in the rewarded behavior occurring more frequently in the future. Therefore, by its own definition, it must strengthen the behavior it follows. If not, it is not a reinforcer.

Because one's name is almost invariably intimately involved with a person's feelings, inclusion of the child's name will add to the strength of the reward. Many children have very strong needs for attention (Staats & Staats, 1964). However there are children for whom attention of the teacher or the class may for a while not be reinforcing. For example, if the child got attention only when he was to be punished, one would not expect that child to want attention. The perceptive teacher learns what is reinforcing by closely observing the child's reaction to different "rewards."

From Thorndike's law of "pleasant effect" to Skinner's extensive experimentation with animals and human beings, the power of operant conditioning has been extensively tested (Staats & Staats, 1964). More recently, much research has been conducted in the area of verbal behavior. It has been found that many different types of behavior can be operantly conditioned, from infants to adults using a variety of rewards or reinforcers. Reinforcement can occur with or without awareness on the part of the learner (Staats & Staats, 1964). Leonard Krasner (1961) reviewed the literature concerning operant conditioning of verbal behavior. Krasner (1961) cited Skinner who discussed the common reinforcer of approval. "It is often difficult to specify its physical dimensions. It may be little more than a nod or a smile ... Sometimes... it has a verbal form: Right! or Good! (p. 75)." Skinner briefly explains that verbal expressions have acquired their power because in the past they have been associated with things concretely reinforcing: food for example, to the person (Krasner, 1961; Staats & Staats, 1964). As the child grows, his need for social approval increases as well. Because students want peer approval, the teacher may enhance verbal rewards by involving the class. For example, she might comment to the class, "Wasn't that well done, class?"

Krasner (1961) reviewed thirty-one studies all based upon operant conditioning of verbal behavior. The great majority of studies achieved significantly positive results. Reinforcers varied including words like "good" or "good one." Interestingly, none of the experimenters used the expression "OK" as a reinforcer. Staats (Staats & Staats, 1964) pointed out that the behavior finally shaped will depend upon the type of reinforcer that is effective for the individual. Thus, the teacher must establish rapport with her students who must want her approval. The success of verbal reinforcement for strengthening correct speech depends upon the teacher-student relationship. (Lambert, 1963.)

Implied in the operant conditioning paradigm, is the factor of contingency. Oral language should be reinforced only if the language is either adequate or improving. To reinforce a student response in which the content is correct but expressed in inappropriate speech would strengthen the correct content response but also reinforce linguistically unacceptable speech. When presented with such a response, it would seem wise for the teacher to repeat the child's response in appropriate language, then adding a verbal reward. The child and the class would perceive the reward with correct language and content.

To enhance the effectiveness of verbal rewards, one can pair them with nonverbal rewards such as smiles, nod's, or a pat on the back. Inclusion of the child's name will also enhance the strength by the child's hearing his name, as well as directing the attention of the class toward that individual. When learning new responses, it is advisable to have the entire class participate in choral recitation to minimize incorrect modes. (Rivers, 1964.) Then the teacher can safely move to smaller and smaller groups. Artificial and mechanical use of words that appear to be verbal rewards will produce little or no effective results. The enthusiastic, sincere, warm teacher well received by her students can use the same words with good results. It cannot be overstressed that the effectiveness of verbal rewards depends upon how much the child values them. The teacher can expect a range of individual differences although teacher recognition will usually be perceived as desirable (Staats & Staats, 1964). Staats (1964) stresses the importance of rewards and their relation to motivation. "Thus, perhaps a primary concern of an account of human motivation should be with the sources of reinforcement (p. 291)." Does the teacher recognize desired behavior in a way that is perceived as genuine, sincere, and natural by the student? If so, the student will learn faster and show increasingly higher levels of motivation.

## SUMMARY

Verbal rewards serve four functions: 1) they strengthen the particular response they follow, 2) they provide feedback, 3) they increase motivation to seek additional rewards, 4) they can provide correct language models. Their effectiveness depends upon the teacher's rapport with her students and her sensitivity to individual needs. Strategies for using rewards offer guidelines to the teacher for achieving greater effectiveness, in terms of student achievement and motivation.

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# MODULE 4

# EXPERIENCE REFERENTS

(BOOKLET 4)

BY

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BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# EXPERIENCE REFERENTS

(Booklet 4)

Author: Margaret A. Davidson

## GOALS

The teacher will develop an understanding of the process by which words become specific symbols for concepts developed from the direct personal experiences of the individual.

## OBJECTIVES

The teacher will be able:

1. To identify teaching-learning strategies in which
    a. children use words to label concepts formed from present direct personal experiences and
    b. children use words as symbols to denote concepts formed from direct personal experiences in the past.
2. To differentiate between sign and symbol usage of language.
3. To identify language instruction procedures which are not based on the present or past direct personal experiences of children.

## RATIONALE (for the teacher)

It will be useful to her in her own teaching if the teacher understands two different language uses: sign and symbol. With this understanding it will be easier for her to know whether she has used a related or an unrelated referent in any given language episode. She will also learn the basic flaws in the use of unrelated referents and why it is necessary for direct personal experience to precede language learning. When she has mastered the differences between sign and symbol uses of language she will find it easier to analyze her own teaching and to select the teaching-learning strategies which will be most productive in her classroom.

RATIONALE (theoretical foundations of the program)

For the individual person, growth in meaning is a continuous process throughout his life. Meanings are not absolute and their precise content depends on the individual sequence of experiences and the interpretation of these experiences by the bearer of the meanings. The more varied the experiences of a person are, the more meanings he has an opportunity to develop and interpret in various ways. The more extensive experiences are, the broader will be the meanings derived. The more intensive experiences are, the deeper will be the meanings derived from them.

All meanings begin as first level concepts gained by direct personal experience. From these concepts a person is able to construct higher-level concepts of an abstract and general nature. There is a direct relationship between experience, meaning, learning, and language.

All young children develop their language from their experience backgrounds. Many children in the Bilingual Program have experience backgrounds which are severely deprived, or else essentially different from those of the children who are considered typical elementary school beginners. Because of these differences in experience, it is necessary that almost all of the oral language instruction provided in the classroom be related to the direct personal experiences of the children. Otherwise, the children will be learning to reproduce sounds without the meanings necessary for language learning. Without meaning, words are but nonsense syllables.

If we consider what John Dewey (Dewey, p. 137) meant when he said, "The beginnings of abstract meaning lie in perceiving concrete uses," we know that he is referring to the direct experiences of the bearer of meanings. Why is experience so necessary for meaning and how are meaning and language related?

For a person to be able to use symbolic language (which is unique to human beings and the most common use of language), he must first develop meanings from his own direct experiences. This experience then becomes the referent which can be labeled with a language sign (words or words). Once language is learned as a sign for something in the immediate environment, the person can convert the sign into a symbol for the referent which he holds only in his mind as an abstraction, a memory. Now, both symbol and referent are held only in the mind of the person and linked together to be available for recall in symbolic language usage.

Until a thing (person, concrete object, occurrence, condition, emotion, etc.) is known through personal experience, the individual has no referent to label with a meaningful sign. That is to say, if the label (word or words) has no meaning as a sign, it cannot bear meaning as a symbol (because there is no referent held in the mind of the person). Symbolic use of words is built on the initial use of words as signs.

It will be helpful to consider this example as one learns to distinguish between sign and symbol use of language (Brooks, p. 8). If a person says "Here comes the postman" and sees, hears, or otherwise perceives that the postman is in the immediate environment (in time and place), he is using language in its sign function. He is referring to what he believes to be in the "here and now." Even though the person arriving may be a milkman, or policeman, the speaker is using language as a sign for he perceives (rightly or wrongly) that the postman is present.

However, a person may say, "I will write a letter and give it to the postman when he comes." In this case language is used symbolically. Neither the letter nor the postman are of the immediate time and place. They are both held as abstractions in the mind of the speaker as symbols for the referents which the speaker had previously experienced but now holds in his memory in some form of mental imagery (visual, auditory, tactile, etc.).

Let us consider one other aspect of language instruction. When we engage children in oral language activities for which they lack the experience referents developed from their personal environment, can we expect success? Even though he may have no meanings to attach to a word, he may learn to reproduce the sounds faultlessly. But without meaning the sounds are useless and are not, in the true sense, a word (which implies that the sounds bear meaning). These sounds sometimes remain as an auditory image we can recall and reproduce in the manner of a little jingle or rhyme or hum. Or, the individual may attribute a wrong meaning to the word or a very vague meaning. We have all had the experience of having such words in our "vocabulary" for years and suddenly, through some direct experience, establish a clear standard meaning for the word. Until this occurs, such a word has no power for us to communicate with others.

Let us take another example. Were we to try to develop the concept of snow without ever having seen or felt snow, we would have to use whatever concepts we held from our direct experiences, such as cold rain, sleet, frost, ice, the frost on the coils of a freezer, etc. If none of these were available as meanings, we would keep searching for a referent. The more removed from the real experience our substitute referents were, the faultier and more erroneous would be our concept of snow. If we had never known anything *cold* then our concept of snow would be something strange and white and of little use as a concept. Without some meaningful referent, a word has no functional value because it lacks a clear concept which can be manipulated by the person in thinking, speaking, and listening (Russell, p. 126).

Understanding these two uses of language (*sign* and *symbol*) and the relationship between experience and meaning will assist the teacher as she selects teaching-learning strategies for use in her own classroom. The importance of direct personal experience as the base for all language learning cannot be overestimated. Language instruction so based can be successful and rewarding for both teacher and pupils.

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# MODULE 5

# THE SELF-CONCEPT AND ITS IMPORTANCE IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

BY

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BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# THE SELF-CONCEPT AND ITS IMPORTANCE IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Author: Nancy Lewis

## GOALS

This module is designed to acquaint the teacher-learner with the self-concept -- the manner in which it is developed in children, its influence on a child's life style, and the ways in which the SEDL Bilingual Program can affect in a positive manner the development of the child's self-concept.

## OBJECTIVES

1. The teacher-learner will define "self-concept."
2. The teacher-learner will be able to identify some aspects of his own self-concept.
3. The teacher-learner will be able to identify some aspects of the self-concept of a typical Mexican American first-grader.
4. The teacher-learner will delineate factors that influence the child's self-concept before he enters school.
5. The teacher-learner will delineate factors that influence the child's self-concept after he enters school.
6. The teacher-learner will identify factors, peculiar to the nominally bilingual child, which are influential on the self-concept.
7. The teacher-learner will identify procedures which are effective in promoting a positive self-image, particularly as these are a part of the SEDL Bilingual Education Program.

## Materials:

A scratch pad and pencil

A hand mirror

A photograph of a Mexican American first grader (must be enlarged)

## RATIONALE

A large number of psychologists today attempt to understand behavior in terms of the self-concept theory, i.e., they feel that the ways in which an individual perceives himself and the world around him are the most important influences on his behavior, and understanding his way of perceiving is the key to understanding his behavior. Many educators who have worked with culturally disadvantaged, nominally bilingual children feel that of all the theories of behavior, the self-concept theory makes the most sense in dealing with this particular type of child. Much of the material in the SEDL Bilingual Education Program uses the premises of the self-concept theory as a psychological foundation.

For these reasons, it is extremely important that teachers who are attempting to implement the SEDL Bilingual Program be familiar with the fundamental aspects of the theory and its applications to bilingual education. Careful study of the module which follows should help the teacher to see herself and her students as individuals who perceive and should help her use the bilingual materials in such a way as to reinforce most pointedly the children's positive perceptions of self.

**Pretest:**

Circle T if you think the item is true, F if you think it is false.

T F 1. An individual's self-concept is composed of those perceptions he has of himself which are the very essence of "me," as far as he is concerned.

T F 2. The way that other people see an individual has nothing to do with his self-concept.

T F 3. Often, a cause of conflict within a child is the difference between his concept of himself and his concept of an "ideal" child.

T F 4. When we tell a Mexican American child that he must speak English at school, we are in essence enhancing his positive self-image.

T F 5. A child who has an essentially negative self-concept is also likely to have a great deal of self-confidence.

T F 6. A child's experinces at home and in the neighborhood are the most important influences on his self-concept before he comes to school.

T F 7. It is important for a child to have a great deal of self-confidence if he is to have the initiative to try new things.

T F 8. Inadequacy in language is really not an important factor in the development of a positive view of self.

T F 9. It is very unlikely that teachers can make a learning situation challenging without its being threatening.

T F 10. A teacher who is conscious of developing positive self-images will provide many opportunities for the students to succeed.

Score your own paper according to the key below. Careful study of the instructional activities which follow should enable you to answer all the questions correctly.

Key:

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | T | 4. | F | 7. | T | 10. | T |
| 2. | F | 5. | F | 8. | F | | |
| 3. | T | 6. | T | 9. | F | | |

Instructional Activities:

1. The self-concept is defined as an individual's perceptions about himself which are so vital, important, and fundamental that they are the very essence of ME, and their loss is regarded as personal destruction.

   Rewrite the definition given above in your own words:

   (Your answer should include these major points: 1) the perceptions, or ideas, about myself which are most important to ME, 2) those things about ME without which there is no ME.)

2. Take the hand mirror and spend a minute or two looking at yourself in it. Try to look not just at the physical aspects of you, but deeper, at what is really you.
3. Now take the scratch pad and make a list of your perceptions of yourself which are important enough to be part of your self-concept. (This list is purely for you; no one else will see it.)
4. The view that each person has of himself is greatly influenced by how he sees himself in relation to other people, or how he thinks other people see him. For example, a high school girl who has been named "Most Beautiful" by her classmates is much more likely to see herself as physically attractive than is one whose nickname is "Chubby." Now, take your list of self-perceptions and write a letter "O" beside thoses which you feel are strongly influenced by the way you think others see you.
5. On another piece of scratch paper, list the characteristics of an ideal person of your age, sex, and occupational status.
6. Now look at your two lists, the one for "Self" and the one for "Ideal," and compare those items which can be compared.

   In a person whose self-concept is essentially positive, there will be differences between the two lists, but very few wide discrepancies.
7. Think of an average six-year-old child who has not yet entered school (nor been to kindergarten) and list below those factors which would most likely be influential upon his self-concept.

(Your list may include many kinds of experiences which the child has had, but obviously most of them will be centered in his home and his neighborhood.)

8. Take the picture of the Mexican American child that was included in your packet. Assume that his mother understands very little English and speaks none and that his father speaks only enough English to get along on his job as a manual laborer. Try to put yourself in this child's skin and make a list of what his self-perceptions are likely to be after a few months in the traditional first-grade classroom.

(Your list should include the effects of his experiences in home and neighborhood mentioned in No. 7 and additionally the effects of his not being able to speak the dominant language of the school [mainly lack of confidence which leads to lack of initiative, and the feeling that because he can't succeed in this setting he is, in general, a failure] and the effects of his being told not to speak his native language. Eventually, this will lead him to believe that Spanish and the culture it represents are of no worth, therefore, people who speak Spanish are of no worth; therefore, he and his family are of no worth.)

9. Look at your list of self-perceptions for the "picture child" again. Put a "+" by those perceptions which are essentially positive and a "-" by those which are essentially negative. Now tally the "+'s" and "-'s" and write the results in the space below.

No. of "+'s": ________________

No. of "-'s": ________________

The results of your tally will show you whether your youngster has an essentially positive or negative self-concept. (More than likely, if you make your list with the principles discussed in this module in mind, you will have more "-'s" than "+'s".)

10. Think of a first grade teacher who has deliberately set out to enhance positive self-images in her students. What kinds of opportunities would she deliberately provide for her students?

(Your list may include many factors, both general and specific, but should definitely include aspects of the following techniques, which are most influential, according to Combs and Snygga: 1) Providing each student with the opportunity to think of himself as a responsible citizen and a contributing member of society; 2) Providing each student with opportunities for success, and positive reinforcement for these successes, and 3) Providing students with a maximum of challenge under a minimum of threat.)

11. Consider the bilingual education program as you know it and list below the aspects of the program which help you to implement the three techniques pointed about above in your classroom.

12. Look at the picture of the Mexican American child again. Think of him as having spent his year in first grade with an understanding teacher (you, we hope) who makes full and effective use of the bilingual approach to education. Put yourself in his skin again and make a list of his likely self-perceptions at the end of this year.

(Some of the items on your list will be the same as those on your list for No. 8 -- especially those which have to do with his home and neighborhood influences. Hopefully, many of those which have to do with his reactions to the school environment will be different.)

13. Look at the list you prepared for No. 12 and again place a "+" by those perceptions which are essentially positive and a "-" by those which are essentially negative. Tally the numbers of "+'s" and "-'s" and place the results of the tally in the space provided below.

No. of "+'s": ______________

No. of "-'s": ______________

Is this child's self-concept essentially positive or essentially negative? ______________________________

(It is hoped that the results of this tally will be more positive than those for Question No. 9.)

14. If you have done the instructional activities carefully, you are now ready to take the pretest again. This time you should be able to answer all the questions correctly.

Test:

Circle T if you think the item is true, F if you think it is false.

T F 1. An individual's self-concept is composed of those perceptions he has of himself which are the very essence of "me," as far as he is concerned.

T F 2. The way that other people see an individual has nothing to do with his self-concept.

T F 3. Often, a cause of conflict within a child is the difference between his concept of himself and his concept of an "ideal" child.

T F 4. When we tell a Mexican American child that he must speak English at school, we are in essence enhancing his positive self-image.

T F 5. A child who has an essentially negative self-concept is also likely to have a great deal of self-confidence.

T F 6. A child's experinces at home and in the neighborhood are the most important influences on his self-concept before he comes to school.

T F 7. It is important for a child to have a great deal of self-confidence if he is to have the initiative to try new things.

T F 8. Inadequacy in language is really not an important factor in the development of a positive view of self.

T F 9. It is very unlikely that teachers can make a learning situation challenging without its being threatening.

T F 10. A teacher who is conscious of developing positive self-images will provide many opportunities for the students to succeed.

Note: This material can be presented to a large group of teachers, rather than in the self-instruction form utilized here. If this is to be done, it is suggested that the lecturer use the "Self-Concept" section of Lewis's paper, "Psychological Bases for Bilingual Education in the Primary Grades," as background, and that he follow this general format:

I. Define self-concept.

II. Have the participants use the mirrors and jot down some of their own self-perceptions as in Instructional Activities Nos. 2 and 3.

III. Discuss Gillham's three "pictures." Possibly have the participants do Instructional Activities Nos. 4, 5, and 6.

IV. Discuss the factors which influence an entering first-grader's self-concept.

V. Use a picture of a Mexican American first grader (preferably with an opaque projector) and talk about his peculiar problems as he enters first grade.

VI. Have the participants do Instructional Activities Nos. 8 and 9.

VII. Discuss the techniques which the school can use to enhance positive self-images.

VIII. Talk about ways in which the bilingual program helps to implement these techniques.

IX. Have participants do Instructional Activities Nos. 12 and 13. Whether or not the participants take the pre- and/or posttests is left to the discretion of the lecturer and may depend on the amount of time available. It is suggested that the lecturer make use of the references listed and possibly that he distribute this list to the participants.

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# MODULE 6

# DEVELOPING AN AWARENESS OF PHONOLOGICAL INTERFERENCES

BY

PEDRO I. COHEN

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# DEVELOPING AN AWARENESS OF PHONOLOGICAL INTERFERENCES

Author: Pedro I. Cohen

## GOALS

Inservice teachers will become aware of the types of phonological interferences occurring from one language to another, and will be able to realize the importance of training children to overcome them gradually.

## OBJECTIVES

1. When teaching the language patterns and the vocabulary of the experimental lessons contained in the booklets SHAPES SHAPES SHAPES, and FORMAS FORMAS FORMAS of the SEDL Experimental Reading Program Supplementary Stories, the bilingual teacher will be able to identify at least 43 different problem areas of phonological interferences that a Spanish-speaking bilingual child may possibly encounter when repeating after the teacher models.

2. The bilingual teacher will be able to classify these possible phonological interferences into two major groups:

    a. Phonological interferences from Spanish to English

    b. Phonological interferences from English to Spainsh.

3. The bilingual teacher will also be able to classify further these phonological interferences into three subgroups:

    a. Phonological interferences in the consonant systems of the two languages,

    b. Phonological interferences in the vowel systems of the two languages,

    c. Other types of phonological interferences: omission of sounds, addition of sounds, transposition of sounds, etc.

## RATIONALE (for the teacher)

To be effective as a bilingual teacher, you must be aware of the phonological difficulties that children in your class will encounter as they imitate your models of sentences in Spanish and English. You need to understand the nature of these weaknesses to be able to teach your pupils how to eliminate them. Unless you accomplish this task effectively, your pupils will never speak Spanish or English correctly; they will always have a foreign accent; they will constantly use unacceptable forms; and, most of the time, they will be unable to express themselves with appropriateness. The very purpose of this module is to train you to become aware of your pupils' difficulties in pronouncing English and/or Spanish as a foreign language.

This module is followed up by Module 7, which emphasizes in more detail the importance of knowing why these mispronunciations occur, and trains you to help your students to overcome these difficulties and attain a native-like pronunciation.

## LIST OF MATERIALS

1. A copy of SHAPES SHAPES SHAPES
2. A copy of FORMAS FORMAS FORMAS
3. A copy of Tape 1 recorded by first-grade bilingual children in San Antonio (speed: 3 3/4; duration: 24 minutes)
4. A copy of Tape 2 recorded by first-grade bilingual children in Creedmoor (speed: 7 1/2; duration: 18 minutes).

## INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

### A. PRETEST 1 - PART 1

The purpose of this Pretest is to find out about your ability to identify possible areas of phonological interferences from Spanish to English.

## PRETEST 1 - PART I

Underline the letter(s) representing the sound (consonants or vowels) that you would expect a Spanish-speaking first grader to mispronounce in the following sentences. (Copied from SHAPES SHAPES SHAPES.)

1. This is a circle.
2. Is this a triangle?
3. Yes, it is.
4. It's a triangle.
5. Is this a triangle?
6. No, it's not.
7. It's a square.
8. This is an ellipse.
9. Is this an ellipse?
10. Yes, it is.
11. It's an ellipse.
12. This is a rectangle.
13. Is this a square?
14. No, it's not.
15. It's a rectangle.
16. Find the shape.

Add the number of possible mispronunciations: ____________________

1. If you were unable to identify at least 25 possible mispronunciations occurring in different words, you must study Section B very carefully. (Do not consult the ANSWER KEY at this point.)
2. If you identified at least 25 possible mispronunciations occurring in different words, you may skip Section B.

## B. IDENTIFICATION OF POSSIBLE PHONOLOGICAL INTERFERENCES FROM SPANISH TO ENGLISH

The purpose of this section of the module is to make you aware of several trouble spots for your pupils. After you go through this instructional part, take Pretest 1 once more.

There are certain sounds in the Spanish language that are not found in the English language. One such sound is represented by the spelling rr in words like perro, correr, arriba, or by the spelling r at the beginning of words, such as rico, rubio, etc. Therefore, you should expect this sound to represent a learning problem for a speaker of English. By the same token, there are several sounds in English that are not found in Spanish. A learning problem for a speaker of Spanish who studies English as a second lagnauge is the sound represented by the spelling th. You must expect a Spanish-speaking pupil to mispronounce words like this every time he comes across it because the sound represented by th in this word does not exist in the Spanish language. There are 7 occurrences of the word this in the Pretest, thus giving a total of 7 possible mispronunciations.

Another English sound not found in the Spanish language is the vowel sound represented by the letter i in the words this, is, circle, it, it's, ellipse, etc. If you look at the PRETEST, you will find that these words occur 28 times in it. Therefore, you should expect a Spanish-speaking child to have 28 additional difficulties in imitating the teacher, unless, of course, he is properly corrected and taught to overcome these deficiencies.

English uses the letter s to represent the last consonant sounds of words like hiss and his. These sounds are obviously different to the ear of a native speaker of English. In Spanish, however, the letter s is used in words like es, mes, etc., to represent a sound very similar to the final consonant found in the word hiss, never of his.* In the Pretest, the same sound represented by the s of his is found in the word is, and this word occurs 9 times. If we add this number of possible mispronunciations to the 35 already identified, we get a total of 44. Observe that the words this, yes, it's, and ellipse have a final consonant sound similar to the final sound of hiss. In these areas, you would not expect a Spanish-speaking child to have difficulties, since Spanish has the same sound represented by the spelling s.

The Spanish language rejects combinations of two consonants at the end of a word. English consonant combinations, such as ts in a contraction of words like It's, and nd in a word like find are very troublesome for speakers of Spanish. Furthermore, it is impossible to find such combinations in Spanish in the same syllable. Since these words appear in the Pretest 7 times, you should expect a Spanish-speaking child to mispronounce them every time he reads or is expected to repeat them.

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*It is quite possible for some native speakers of Spanish to produce either variant in their pronunciation of words, such as asno, desde, mismo, etc.

A perennial source of mispronunciations for speakers of both languages are the sounds represented in each language by the spellings r and rr. Speakers of Spanish will have difficulties pronouncing the English r-sound in words like circle, triangle, square, rectangle, etc. These words occur in the Pretest a total of 8 times. Therefore, the total number of possible mispronunciations thus far is 58.

Another source of mispronunciation for a speaker of Spanish is the word no. He will most likely pronounce it without the expected vowel-plus-glide combinations typical of English words like bow, toe, etc.

Speakers of Spanish tend to mispronounce a letter of spelling y in words like yes, yellow, you. These are pronounced: Jess, jellow, Jew.

A similar source of problems will be found in words like ship, which is pronounced like chip, and shape, which becomes chape.

Finally, if you listen carefully, you will notice that the sounds represented by the spelling l at the beginning and at the end of words in English are articulated slightly differently. This is not the case in Spanish. You will notice that a speaker of Spanish will probably mispronounce final l sounds in words like circle, triangle, and rectangle.

If we add these difficulties to those pointed out earlier, we will find that there are approximately 81 possibilities of mispronunciations for a Spanish-speaking pupil in the language and structures found in Pretest 1.

The instructions found in the preceding paragraphs have intended to make you aware of possible trouble areas in the speech of a Spanish-speaking child. They are caused by the absence of several English sounds in this language. A more detailed analysis would surely render a few more possible difficulties, and different explanations for them. However, this presentation should be indicative of the importance for a bilingual teacher to become aware of the phonological deficiencies in the speech of her pupils. You will notice that we have so far pointed out only the areas where mispronunciations might possibly occur. A more detailed account of why these mispronunciations occur and how to overcome them will be found in Module 7

C. POSTTEST 1 (Do not look at Answer Key.)

Go over Pretest 1 once more and underline the mispronunciations that you would expect to hear from a Spanish-speaking first grader who repeats after a teacher or who reads aloud by himself.

D. Consult the Answer Key now. You should be able to make a score of 85-90 percent this time. This will indicate that you have understood the preceding instructions quite well.

## PRETEST 1 - PART I

## ANSWER KEY

TOTAL NUMBER OF POSSIBLE MISPRONUNCIATIONS FOR EACH SENTENCE:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | THIS IS A CIRCLE. | 7 |
| 2. | IS THIS A TRIANGLE? | 7 |
| 3. | YES, IT IS. | 4 |
| 4. | IT'S A TRIANGLE. | 5 |
| 5. | IS THIS A TRIANGLE? | 7 |
| 6. | NO, IT'S NOT. | 4 |
| 7. | IT'S A SQUARE. | 3 |
| 8. | THIS IS AN ELLIPSE. | 6 |
| 9. | IS THIS AN ELLIPSE? | 6 |
| 10. | YES, IT IS. | 4 |
| 11. | IT'S AN ELLIPSE. | 4 |
| 12. | THIS IS A RECTANGLE. | 7 |
| 13. | IS THIS A SQUARE? | 5 |
| 14. | NO, IT'S NOT. | 4 |
| 15. | IT'S A RECTANGLE. | 5 |
| 16. | FIND THE SHAPE. | 3 |
| | | 81 |

TOTAL NUMBER OF POSSIBLE MISPRONUNCIATIONS IN EACH WORD:

| | |
|---|---|
| THIS | 2 |
| IS | 2 |
| CIRCLE | 3 |
| TRIANGLE | 3 |
| YES | 1 |
| IT | 1 |
| IT'S | 2 |
| NO | 1 |
| NOT | 1 |
| SQUARE | 1 |
| ELLIPSE | 2 |
| RECTANGLE | 3 |
| FIND | 1 |
| THE | 1 |
| SHAPE | 1 |
| | 25 |

## E. PRETEST 1 - PART II

Go over Pretest 1 and classify all 81 possible mispronunciations into three groups:

1. Phonological interferences in the consonant system of English (C)
2. Phonological interferences in the vowel system of English (V)
3. Other types of interferences (O):
    a. Omission of sounds
    b. Addition of sounds
    c. Transposition of sounds

Do not consult the Answer Key for Pretest 1 - Part II before you have answered this part of the Pretest.

# PRETEST 1 - PART II

## ANSWER KEY

| SENTENCE NUMBER | C | V | O |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 4 | 3 | - |
| 2 | 4 | 3 | - |
| 3 | 2 | 2 | - |
| 4 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | - |
| 6 | - | 3 | 1 |
| 7 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 8 | 2 | 3 | 1 |
| 9 | 2 | 3 | 1 |
| 10 | 2 | 2 | - |
| 11 | - | 2 | 2 |
| 12 | 4 | 3 | - |
| 13 | 3 | 2 | - |
| 14 | - | 3 | 1 |
| 15 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| 16 | 2 | - | 1 |
| | 34 | 37 | 10 |

The mispronunciations classified as other (O) are examples of:

1. Omission of sounds: (Sentences 1, 6, 7, 11, 14, 15, 16)
2. Transposition of sounds: (Sentences 8, 9, 11)

## F. PRETEST 2 - PART I

The purpose of this Pretest is to find out about your ability to identify possible areas of phonological interferences from English to Spanish.

## PRETEST 2 - PART I

Underline the letter(s) representing the sound (consonants or vowels) that you would expect a Spanish-speaking first grader to mispronounce in the following sentences. (Copied from FORMAS FORMAS FORMAS.)

1. Este es un círculo.
2. ¿Es éste un triángulo?
3. Sí, sí es.
4. Es un triángulo.
5. ¿Es éste un triángulo?
6. No, no es.
7. Es un cuadrado.
8. Esta es una elipse.
9. ¿Es ésta una elipse?
10. Sí, sí es.
11. Es una elipse.
12. Este es un rectángulo.
13. ¿Es éste un cuadrado?
14. No, no es.
15. Es un rectángulo.
16. Encuentra la forma.

Add the number of possible mispronunciations: ____________________

1. If you were unable to identify at least 18 possible mispronunciations occurring in different words, you must study Section F very carefully. (Do not consult the Answer Key for Pretest 2 - Part I at this point.)
2. If you identified at least 18 possible mispronunciations occurring in different words, you may wish to skip Section F.

## G. IDENTIFICATION OF POSSIBLE PHONOLOGICAL INTERFERENCES FROM ENGLISH TO SPNAISH

The purpose of this section of the module is to make you aware of several trouble spots for your pupils. After you go through this instructional unit, take Pretest 2 - Part I once more.

In Section B we established the fact that a Spanish-speaking child will mispronounce a number of English words because (1) the same letters represent different sounds in each language, and (2) because there are several sounds in English that do not exist in Spanish.

In this Section we are interested in making you aware of some of the difficulties encountered by Spanish-speaking children in pronouncing Spanish words. Since we have been referring so far to a Spanish-speaking child, it may seem like a contradiction to speak in terms of mispronunciations in his native language produced by an interference from his second language: English. However, you must realize that our bilingual children come to our schools with varying degrees of language competence. Some speak more English than Spanish; others speak more Spanish than English. So, when in Section B we say that a Spanish-speaking child mispronounces the word circle, and then in this Section we tell you that a Spanish-speaking child will probably mispronounce the word _círculo_, we are not speaking of the same pupil, but of two different bilingual children. If a child is bilingual to some extent, then, you must expect his speech habits to be influenced by interferences from both languages.

If we accept as true the fact that the "native" language can be influenced by the "second" language, then a Spanish-speaking child will most likely have difficulties in pronouncing a word like _círculo_. As a matter of fact, he will probably substitute English short _i_ by analogy from _circle_. Furthermore, his English-colored _r_ will be transferred to his pronunciation not only of _círculo_, but of _triángulo_, _rectángulo_, _forma_, _encuentra_, etc., as well.

A common habit of speakers of English is to reduce vowels in unstressed positions. When carried over into Spanish, this tendency forces a child to mispronounce the vowel _u_ in words like _círculo_, _triángulo_, and _rectángulo_. The analysis up to this point gives us an inventory of 15 possible mispronunciations.

Spanish-speaking children throughout the Southwest are guilty of a developmental or dialectal difficulty called _metathesis_, consisting in a transposition of two sounds in the same word. Examples of this difficulty are the pronunciation of _pader_ for _pared_, _polvadera_ for _polvareda_, etc. In Pretest 2, you will find children transposing sounds in words like _cuadrado_ and _elipse_, resulting in mispronunciations, such as _cuardado_ and _elispe_.

The short i occurring in English ellipse will be substituted in the Spanish elipse, and many times in words like sí. Finally, on the analogy of English, the vowel in the Spanish word no will most likely be diphthongized. Consequently, a total of 40 possible mispronunciations can be identified in Pretest 2.

H. POSTTEST 2 - PART I (Do not look at Answer Key.)

You should now go over the test again and try to identify these areas of possible mispronunciations.

I. Consult the Answer Key now. You should be able to bring up your score to 85-90 percent this time.

## PRETEST 2 - PART I

## ANSWER KEY

TOTAL NUMBER OF POSSIBLE MISPRONUNCIATIONS FOR EACH SENTENCE:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | ESTE ES UN CIRCULO. | 3 |
| 2. | ¿ES ESTE UN TRIANGULO? | 4 |
| 3. | SI, SI ES. | 2 |
| 4. | ES UN TRIANGULO. | 4 |
| 5. | ¿ES ESTE UN TRIANGULO? | 4 |
| 6. | NO, NO ES. | 2 |
| 7. | ES UN CUADRADO. | 1 |
| 8. | ESTA ES UNA ELIPSE. | 2 |
| 9. | ¿ES ESTA UNA ELIPSE? | 2 |
| 10. | SI, SI ES. | 2 |
| 11. | ES UNA ELIPSE. | 2 |
| 12. | ESTE ES UN RECTANGULO. | 3 |
| 13. | ¿ES ESTE UN CUADRADO? | 1 |
| 14. | NO, NO ES. | 2 |
| 15. | ES UN RECTANGULO. | 3 |
| 16. | ENCUENTRA LA FORMA. | 3 |
| | | 40 |

TOTAL NUMBER OF POSSIBLE MISPRONUNCIATIONS IN EACH WORD:

| | |
|---|---|
| CIRCULO | 3 |
| TRIANGULO | 4 |
| SI | 1 |
| NO | 1 |
| CUADRADO | 1 |
| ELIPSE | 2 |
| RECTANGULO | 3 |
| ENCUENTRA | 2 |
| FORMA | 1 |
| | 18 |

J. PRETEST 2 - PART II

Go over Pretest 2 and classify all 40 possible mispronunciations into three groups:

1. Phonological interferences in the consonant system of Spanish (C)
2. Phonological interferences in the vowel system of Spanish (V)
3. Other types of interferences (O):
    a. Omission of sounds
    b. Addition of sounds
    c. Transposition of sounds.

Do not consult the Answer Key for Pretest 2 - Part II before you have answered this part of the Pretest.

## PRETEST 2 - PART II

## ANSWER KEY

| SENTENCE NUMBER | C | V | O |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 2 | - |
| 2 | 2 | 2 | - |
| 3 | - | 2 | - |
| 4 | 2 | 2 | - |
| 5 | 2 | 2 | - |
| 6 | - | 2 | - |
| 7 | - | - | 1 |
| 8 | - | 1 | 1 |
| 9 | - | 1 | 1 |
| 10 | - | 2 | - |
| 11 | - | 1 | 1 |
| 12 | 1 | 2 | - |
| 13 | - | - | 1 |
| 14 | - | 2 | - |
| 15 | 1 | 2 | - |
| 16 | 3 | - | - |
|  | 12 | 23 | 5 |

The mispronunciations classified as other (O) are all examples of transpositions of sounds (Sentences 7, 8, 9, 11, 13.)

K. In this section you will listen to the voices of several bilingual first graders recording the language patterns and vocabulary of the experimental lessons discussed in the previous sections. Our purpose here is to offer you ample evidence that the possibility of mispronunciations is an actual problem. You will be able to hear what these children are saying. We hope that the importance of becoming aware of their deficiencies and, therefore, the value of this module will be self-evident.

On listening to these tapes, you will also realize the importance of having students repeat after a good model. (Refer to Cohen's Module 2 for pertinent information on modeling and drill management techniques.)

If you are an experienced teacher, you will, no doubt, recognize some of the children's difficulties. Many times, however, teachers have not listened to recordings made by their pupils. We offer you this opportunity now, and we are confident that the time you spend listening to these recordings will prove extremely rewarding.

If you are a teacher who starts out to work in a bilingual program, then, this Section will be very valuable, as it presents numerous examples of mispronunciations in English and Spanish recorded on the spot. It will be your responsiblity to help your pupils to overcome them. Module 7 will follow up on this.

In tape 1, you will listen to six first graders repeating after a model. Some of these children are familiar with the booklets containing the experimental lessons; some are not. In tape 2, you will listen to the voices of two first graders, a boy and a girl, as they read without the help of a model from the same booklets, which they see for the first time. Listen very carefully to these recordings and .... judge.

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## MODULE 7

# THE WHY OF PHONOLOGICAL INTERFERENCES AND TECHNIQUES FOR CORRECTING THEM

BY

PEDRO I. COHEN

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# THE WHY OF PHONOLOGICAL INTERFERENCES AND TECHNIQUES FOR CORRECTING THEM

Author: Pedro I. Cohen

## GOALS

Inservice teachers will understand why certain phonological interferences occur and will be able to correct them.

## OBJECTIVES

After the bilingual teacher has identified the phonological interferences encountered by her children in the lessons contained in the booklets SHAPES, SHAPES, SHAPES, and FORMAS, FORMAS, FORMAS, she will demonstrate her understanding of why they occur by:

1. making on-the-spot corrections
2. teaching the children how to overcome these interferences.

## RATIONALE (for the teacher)

To be effective as a bilingual teacher, you must be aware of the phonological difficulties that children in your class will encounter as they imitate your models of sentences in Spanish and English. After you have identified these interferences, you must understand why they occur, so that you can teach your students how to overcome them. Unless you accomplish this task effectively, your pupils will never speak Spanish or English correctly; they will always have a foreign accent; they will constantly use unacceptable forms; and, most of the time, they will be unable to express themselves with appropriateness. The very purpose of this module is to train you to understand why your pupils mispronounce certain words, and to teach you several effective techniques to help your students overcome these phonological interferences, so that their pronunciation will resemble that of a native speaker.

This module follows Cohen's Module 6, which attempts to develop your awarneness of pupils' difficulties in pronouncing English and/or Spanish as a second language.

Module 6 provides the teacher the necessary background on phonological interferences which she will need to work more easily through Module 7. For this reason, successful completion of Module 6 is recommended as a prerequisite to Module 7.

## LIST OF MATERIALS

1. A copy of SHAPES, SHAPES, SHAPES
2. A copy of FORMAS, FORMAS, FORMAS
3. A pad and a pen or pencil

## INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

The purpose of this Section is to explain to you why a Spanish-speaking child will mispronounce certain words in English. In addition, you will be instructed on how to help your pupils to overcome these deficiencies. We must first check up on your ability to train students not to mispronounce words.

## A. PRETEST

The purpose of this Pretest is to find out about your ability to tell why mispronunciations occur. Fill in the blank spaces with a T if the statement is true; with an F if the statement is false.

_____ 1. The spelling j represents the same sound in English and in Spanish.

_____ 2. Speakers of Spanish mispronounce many English words because they have the tendency to pronounce all vowel sounds very clearly.

_____ 3. For a speaker of Spanish, the pronunciation of the English consonants v and b is not a problem.

_____ 4. The Spanish language has a consonant corresponding to the English spelling sh in its sound system.

_____ 5. A Spanish-speaking child will have difficulties in making the proper distinctions in the pronunciation of the words cub and cup.

_____ 6. Consonant combinations at the beginning of words, such as school, speech, street, etc., are difficult to pronounce for a Spanish-speaking child, but not when they appear at the end of a word.

_____ 7. English and Spanish have the same number of vowel sounds.

_____ 8. The sounds represented by the spelling z are the same in English and in Spanish.

_____ 9. If a student is unable to recognize a sound made by the teacher, he will be unable to produce it.

______ 10. English and Spanish have the same types of stresses on words and phrases.

______ 11. The spelling ch in English and in Spanish represents the same sounds.

______ 12. Children mispronounce words because they are unable to discriminate differences in certain sounds.

______ 13. A Spanish-speaking child will tend to pronounce a d for the sound represented by the English spelling th in words like this, that, the, etc.

______ 14. Difficulties encountered by Spanish-speakers in the pronunciation of certain English consonants will vary depending on whether the consonants appear in initial, medial or final position.

______ 15. A Spanish-speaking child will not have difficulties distinguishing between the pronunciation of curve and curb.

______ 16. A Spanish-speaking child will tend to pronounce the words leafs and leaves alike.

______ 17. The consonant t is articulated with the tip of the tongue against the back of the upper teeth in English and in Spanish.

______ 18. The Spanish consonant b is the same in any of these words: Cuba, blanco, absurdo.

______ 19. There are no important differences between the pronunciation of English and Spanish consonants.

______ 20. The spelling y represents the same sound in Spanish and in English.

Score: ____________________

# ANSWER SHEET

1. F
2. T
3. F
4. F
5. T
6. F
7. F
8. F
9. T
10. F
11. F
12. T
13. T
14. T
15. F
16. T
17. F
18. F
19. F
20. F

If you miss more than 5 statements, you should study the following instructions very carefully. In addition, the selected bibliography provided at the end of this module should prove extremely valuable in your work.

## B. THE WHY OF PHONOLOGICAL INTERFERENCES AND TECHNIQUES FOR CORRECTING THEM

The purpose of this section of the module is to explain to you why phonological interferences occur. You will also be taught some techniques that will enable you to train your pupils to correct these interferences.

In order for your pupils to acquire a good pronunciation, you must make sure that your own pronunciation is impeccable; you must also insist on an accurate imitation on the part of your pupils.

Also, before teaching a child to pronounce a certain sound, you must find out if he can recognize it. Several techniques for the teaching of pronunciation have found increased acceptance among foreign language teachers. However, in teaching young learners, the basic technique is mimicry. Children must be encouraged at all times to imitate a good realistic model through choral and individual repetition. If this does not suffice, brief explanations concerning the correct articulatory features of the sounds in question may be necessary.

In teaching a child to pronounce correctly the sentence This is a circle, although there are 7 possible mispronunciations (See Module 6, p.  .), the teacher should concentrate on helping her children to overcome them one at a time.

### 1. THEY VS DAY

When a Spanish-speaking child is asked to repeat after the teacher words like this, or the, he will most likely substitute a d for the sound represented by the English spelling th. The reason for this is that the Spanish language does not have this sound. Moreover, it is difficult for a Spanish-speaker to produce it, and he has to be trained to articulate the sound correctly.

If after several repetitions of the same sentence by the whole class, smaller groups and individual children, there are still some children who cannot imitate you accurately, try one or all of the following techniques.

a. Contrast Drills - Recognition of Sounds

(1) Ask the children to imitate you and repeat the following lists of words which contrast in the first consonant sound:

| 1 | 2 |
|---|---|
| then | den |
| they | day |
| those | doze |
| than | Dan |

(2) Ask the children to participate actively in the following game. Pronounce three words (same or different) from either column and ask the children to identify the column from which you chose the three words.

Example 1:

Teacher: they, those, than

Student(s): 1

Example 2:

Teacher: den, den, den
Student(s): 2

Example 3:

Teacher: than, than, Dan
Student(s): 1 1 2

Example 4:

Teacher: day, they, day
Student(s): 2 1 2

(3) Explain (and show) that in order to pronounce th in column 1 the tip of the tongue slightly protrudes between the front teeth. In order to pronounce d in column 2, the tongue touches the upper gum ridge. You must also know that a Spanish d and an English d differ in the points of articulation. That is, in order to produce a good initial d in Spanish as in Dios, doy, día, etc., the tongue touches the lower back of the upper teeth, not the gum ridge as in English.

This oral game and variations of it can be followed up by asking the children to write their answers down on a sheet of paper, or the chalkboard, etc.

b. Contrast Drills - Production of Sounds

(1) The preceding section was designed to find out if the children could recognize sound differences. By actively involving the children in the same oral language game, you can now find out if they are able to produce

the difficult sounds and to discriminate between the words from column 1 and those in column 2.

Example 1:

Student A: they, they, they

Student B: 1

Example 2:

Student A: Dan, Dan, Dan

Student B: 2, etc.

(2) Give additional, realistic practice by putting the words in columns 1 and 2 into everyday sentences, and by asking the students to imitate exactly your pronunciation.

Examples:

Dad is taller than Dan.

Those were the days, my friend.

They had happy days together.

Then he entered the den.

Dad then went there.

This is the dog.

Observe that the same techniques can be used to teach other consonant and vowel sounds.

2. IT VS EAT

We learned in Module 6 (p. ) that Spanish-speaking children have difficulty pronouncing words like this, is, circle, it, its, ellipse, etc., because the Spanish language does not have the short *i* vowel found in these words. The tendency of a Spanish-speaking child in pronouncing these words is to substitute the Spanish vowel represented by the spelling *i* in words like *disco*, *iza*, *circulo*, *pita*, *elipse*, etc. This Spanish vowel is very similar to the English vowel sound in *eat*, *seat*, *meet*, *see*, etc.

In order to teach a Spanish-speaking child to recognize and produce accurately the vowel sounds in *it*, and *eat*, the best technique is to train him to imitate your model as clearly and as accurately as possible. Descriptions and explanations concerning the articulatory features of these sounds are helpful to the teacher, but cumbersome and too technical for very young leaners. You must know that English has a short *i* sound (*i*t) and a long *e* sound (*ea*t) for which a Spanish-speaking child substitutes his *i* sound.

In order to simplify the teaching of the distinction between the vowel sound of *it* and the vowel sound of *eat*, try one or all of the following techniques:

a. *Contrast Drills* - Recognition of Sounds

(1) Ask the children to imitate you and repeat the following groups of words which contrast in the vowel sound only.

| *1* | *2* |
|---|---|
| *i*t | *ea*t |
| b*i*t | b*ea*t |
| d*i*d | d*ee*d |
| sh*i*p | sh*ee*p |
| f*i*t | f*ee*t |

(2) Ask the children to participate actively in the following game. Pronounce three words (same or different) from either column and ask the children to identify the column from which you chose the words.

Example 1:

Teacher: fit, fit, fit

Student(s): 1

Example 2:

Teacher: sheep, sheep, sheep

Student(s): 2

Example 3:

Teacher: dip, dip, deep

Student(s): 1 1 2

Example 4:

Teacher: bit, beat, bit

Student(s): 1 2 1

(3) Give additional, realistic practice by putting the words in columns 1 and 2 into everyday sentences, and by asking the students to repeat and imitate exactly your pronunciation.

Examples:

These shoes don't fit.

These are my feet.

There is the ship.

There is the sheep.

He did a good deed.

Here is your food, eat it.

b. Contrast Drills - Production of Sounds

After you have made sure that your pupils can recognize the vowel sounds in columns 1 and 2, you must give them practice in producing them.

(1) Repeat the techniques used in a and make sure that students participate actively. One child plays the teacher role; the others answer as before.

(2) Vary the game:

  (a) Children write answer numbers on a sheet of paper.

  (b) Children write answer numbers on chalkboard.

  (c) Children point to word or sentence pronounced on the chalkboard.

  (d) If a child chooses a word from column 1, another child pronounces the corresponding opposite in column 2; etc.

3. HIS VS HISS

The last consonant sounds of the word his and hiss are different to the ear of a native speaker of English. For a native speaker of Spanish, however, these sounds are the same. He has to be trained to recognize this difference as well as to be able to produce it.

When Spanish-speaking children are asked to repeat words like is, his, eyes, lose, etc., they substitute a Spanish-language s sound, and the result is mispronunciation.

Because Spanish does not have the final sound of English *his*, the tendency to substitute a Spanish sound similar to the final sound of *hiss* is extended to other words, such as *zipper*, which is pronounced like *sipper*, and *zoo*, which is pronounced like *Sue*.

In conclusion, a Spanish-speaker will mispronounce the sounds represented by the English spelling *z* in *zoo*, *buzz*, *razor*; and the spelling *s* in words like *eyes*, *lose*, *close* (verb).

In order to train your children to overcome these deficiencies, you must teach them to recognize and produce the differences between the initial consonant sounds in the words of columns 1 and 2:

| 1 | 2 |
|---|---|
| Sue | zoo |
| sip | zip |
| sink | zinc |
| seal | zeal |

and the final consonants in the following words:

| 1 | 2 |
|---|---|
| bus | buzz |
| niece | knees |
| ice | eyes |
| loose | lose |

a. Contrast Drills - Recognition of Sounds

(1) Ask the children to imitate you and repeat the words in the columns above. Although the spelling is different, when these words are spoken, they contrast only in the initial or the final consonant sound.

(2) Ask the children to participate actively in the following game. Pronounce three words (same or different) from either column and ask the children to identify the column from which you chose the words.

Example 1:

Teacher: zoo, zoo, zoo
Student(s): 2

Example 2:

Teacher: ice, ice, ice
Student(s): 1

Example 3:

Teacher: sink, zinc, sink
Student(s): 1 2 1

Example 4:

Teacher: sip, loose, lose
Student(s): 1 1 2

(3) In order to explain the difference between these consonant sounds to the children, tell them that words in column 2 of the first group begin with a buzzing sound; and that the words in column 2 of the second group end in the same sound.

Emphasize the fact that although words in column 1 are spelled differently from words in Column 2, when these words are spoken, the only difference, or the only way to understand the meaning between the two words is the buzzing.

Here is another way to show your pupils the difference between the final sound of his and the final sound of hiss. Ask the students to cover their ears with both palms of their hands and to whisper out loud an s and a z sound. They will be able to hear the buzzing produced when z is articulated, not when s is produced.

(4) Ask your pupils to close their eyes while you repeat drills (1) or (2). This will train the children to be able to recognize the sounds when they hear them, even though they cannot see the printed words.

(5) Give additional, realistic practice by putting the words in columns 1 and 2 into everyday sentences. Ask the children to repeat and imitate your pronunciation as exactly as possible.

Examples:

Sue went to the zoo.
Sinks are not made of zinc.
My niece hurt her knees.
She has big eyes.
This is thin ice.

b. Contrast Drills - Production of Sounds

After you are reasonably sure that your pupils are able to recognize the words in each column when they hear them, you must find out if they can also produce them accurately. Repeat the same drills (1), (2), (3), (4), but this time make the children play the roles among themselves. That is, Student A will play the teacher (model); Student B will identify the words.

4. YES VS JESS

The distinction between y and j is one of the most difficult for speakers of Spanish to recognize and produce in learning English as a second language. A Spanish-speaker will most likely pronounce yes with a sound similar to the J of Jess; however, the same speaker will probably pronounce Jim with a sound similar to the y of yes. The matter is further compounded because Spanish-speakers use different varieties of the y sound depending on its position in a word, and other dialectal considerations.

The best way to train children to recognize and produce these sounds is to have them imitate as accurately as possible a good model.

a. Contrast Drills - Recognition of Sounds

(1) Read aloud the words in the two columns below making sure to differentiate very clearly those in column 1 from those of column 2. The only difference between

the words in one column and the opposite words is the initial consonant sound. Then ask the children to imitate you as accurately as possible and repeat after you.

| 1 | 2 |
|---|---|
| yes | Jess |
| you | Jew |
| yellow | jello |
| yam | jam |
| yet | jet |

Emphasize the fact that a very small difference of sounds produces a total different meaning, and that it is very important for children to recognize the words and be able to pronounce them clearly when they speak.

(2) Ask the children to participate actively in the following game. Pronounce one word from column 1 three times. Ask the children to identify the column from which you chose the word. Continue the drill with other words from either column.

Example 1:

Teacher: yes, yes, yes

Student(s): 1

Example 2:

Teacher: jello, jello, jello

Student(s): 2

Example 3:

Teacher: yet, yet, jet

Student(s): 1 1 2

(3) Explain, if necessary, that in order to pronounce an English y the tongue approaches the upper gum ridge without touching them. The sound is easily pronounced by a speaker of Spanish if he substitutes his Spanish j for it. In pronouncing an English j, the tongue first presses tightly against the upper gum ridge as if to pronounce a d, and then releases with a sound similar to the s in vision.

This oral game or other variations earlier suggested can be followed up by asking children to write their answers down on a sheet of paper, or the chalkboard, etc.

b. Contrast Drills - Production of Sounds

After you are reasonably sure that your pupils are able to recognize the words in each column when they are spoken to them, find out if they can also produce them accurately. Repeat the same drills (1), (2), but make children play the roles among themselves. That is, Student A will play the teacher, and Student B will identify the words.

5. SHAPE VS CHAPE

The consonant system of the Spanish language does not contain the sound represented by the spellings underlined in the words: shape, she, shot, ashes, mission, nation, etc. For this reason, pairs of words like ship-chip, shin-chin, shoe-chew, wash-watch, sound alike to the ear of a native speaker of Spanish. It is not only difficult for a Spanish-speaking child to distinguish these contrasts, but also to produce them. Your job as a bilingual teacher is to train your pupils to make the proper distinctions and to develop their awareness of the fact that a faulty pronunciation produces misunderstanding.

a. Contrast Drills - Recognition of Sounds

(1) Read the following words aloud to your class. Make a precise distinction between those in column 1 and those in column 2. Then ask your pupils to imitate you and repeat after you as accurately as possible.

| 1 | 2 |
|---|---|
| ship | chip |
| share | chair |
| shop | chop |
| sheep | cheap |
| wash | watch |
| wish | witch |

(2) Ask the children to participate actively in the following game. Pronounce three words from either column and ask the children to identify the column from which the words were chosen.

Example 1:

Teacher: ship, ship, ship

Student(s): 1

Example 2:

Teacher: cheap, cheap, cheap

Student(s): 2

(3) Pronounce three words (same or different) and ask the children to identify the columns from which they were chosen.

Example 3:

Teacher: shop, chop, shop

Student(s): 1 2 1

Example 4:

Teacher: wash, wash, watch

Student(s): 1 1 2

(4) Ask children to close their eyes, and repeat drill (3).

(5) Give additional, realistic practice by putting the words in columns 1 and 2 into everyday sentences. Ask the children to repeat and imitate exactly your pronunciation. Follow procedure as in (1) and (2).

Examples:

This is a big ship.
This is a big chip.
The boys are shopping.
The boys are chopping.
She is washing the baby.

She is watching the baby.

Girls like to make wishes.

Girls like to make witches.

(6) If necessary, explain to the children that in making the sh sound, the tip of the tongue does not touch the upper gum ridge. In producing the ch sound, the tip of the tongue is pressed against the upper gum ridge as if to produce a t, and then it is suddenly released to produce a sh sound.

Note: If your pupils have learned to pronounce a sh sound, it is easy for them to learn the correct articulation of ch by combining a t + sh.

b. Contrastive Drills - Production of Sounds

After you have drilled the children to the point of being able to recognize the above distinctions, you must make sure that they can produce them, too.

(1) Repeat the techniques used in a, and make sure that the children will participate actively. One child can play the teacher role; the others will identify the words in the manner explained above.

(2) Vary the game:

- (a) Children write answer numbers on a sheet of paper.
- (b) Children write answer numbers on chalkboard.
- (c) Children point to word or sentence pronounced on the chalkboard.
- (d) Child A pronounces one word from either column; Child B pronounces the opposite word; etc.

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# MODULE 8

# TEACHER/PUPIL TALK PATTERNS

(BOOKLET 6)

BY

MARGARET A. DAVIDSON

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# TEACHER/PUPIL TALK PATTERNS

(Booklet 6)

Author: Margaret A. Davidson

## GOALS

To develop increased understanding by the teacher of:

1. The need for more and more pupil activity and participation

2. Success in language learning being proportionate to the self-activity of the pupil.

## OBJECTIVES

To be able to provide the maximum amount of pupil self-activity, the teacher will learn:

1. To distinguish between these different types of language activities and learn the most appropriate uses of each to gain maximum pupil participation:

    a. repetition drills

    b. corrective drills

    c. independent utterances

2. To recognize an appropriate ratio which allows the most pupils to engage in oral language self-activity in using these instructional techniques:

    a. teacher-led drills

    b. pupil-led drills

    c. teacher-pupil dialogues

    d. pupil-pupil dialogues and original utterances

3. To direct language instruction based on these pattern practices which provide the most possible pupil language self-activity in the classroom.

   a. the teacher

   b. a pupil

   c. pupil-pupil dialogue

RATIONALE (for the teacher)

As you study the theoretical foundations of this instructional unit, you will understand why it is important for you to work toward having your pupils talk an increasing greater proportion of the time as you listen a greater proportion of the instructional period and give assistance, encouragement and correction where it is needed. You will be able to analyze your own teaching procedures more accurately. In turn, you will understand how you can deliberately provide the appropriate ratio of teacher/pupil language activities at different levels of skill development. This will enable you to learn to use several instructional techniques with maximum efficiency as your pupils develop higher and more varied levels of language proficiency.

RATIONALE (theoretical foundations)

Each of you has watched infants learning to talk and know from your own experience that the young child masters his native language through countless hours of practice in language imitation and production. The infant talks endlessly to himself, to others, and to his pets and toys. In these informal ways the child is engaged in language production and practice. Such an opportunity for oral practice must be provided for the child who is working to master a second language. To succeed, he must engage in countless hours of oral language imitation and practice in the second language. We choose most of the words and patterns that we produce in our native language through habit and, through habit, we unconsciously obey complex pronunciation and grammar rules as we engage in oral speech automatically and rapidly. It is by establishing, through practice and habit formation, a set of automatic responses in a second language that a person can learn to speak at the normal speed of a fluent native speaker. This is the goal of second language learning.

If school children are to have enough opportunities to talk in a second language, you must provide opportunities for them to practice the language in a variety of meaningful and interesting ways. Practice opportunities that cause the children to need to communicate with each other are generally most effective and enjoyable for children. Some drill has to be done on specific language problems, but if practice is confined to just work on specific problems then, whenever the need to communicate arises the mechanics of the second language fail and the child uses native language (for more information see Lado, pp. 103-105.).

The talk patterns in audio-lingual language instruction follow a systematic sequence. At first the teacher models a language pattern and the group, by mimicry, repeats the teacher's model in chorus together, then the model is repeated by smaller groups such as half the class, a row, or a group seated around a table together. Finally, from within the smaller groups, the teacher works with children individually as they repeat the model. If the smaller groups falter, you, as the teacher must decide if the class needs to return to choral repetition. Usually you will work on correcting specific mistakes by having the children repeat your language model, sometimes by the whole group, sometimes by smaller groups or individuals. This is habit forming practice and it is used until the correct oral language response is established. Without such practice there is little real learning of the language. After specific mistakes are corrected, the group produces the entire pattern again by repeating your model. The class then returns to small group and individual language activities (for more information see Rivers, pp. 43-50.).

After the language patterns are learned by the individual children, the teacher provides the opportunity for dialogue between individual children. In this dialogue a more personal application of the children's own experiences is made. This allows for a more flexible use of the language patterns and helps to avoid the pitfall of using the pattern language in a mechanical way while still uncertain of its meaning and application. If this occurs the child will be unable to use the pattern except in the context in which it was learned in audio-lingual practice and drills.

Audio-lingual techniques, when properly used, have been found to be very appropriate for young children in second language learning. Young children like to mimic and are quite able mimics. This is part of their love of nursery rhymes and jingles. As they mimic a second language, this causes a feeling of success in the child, and we all have seen that with success the child becomes eager to learn. After successful pattern learning, you as the teacher must use your ingenuity and imagination to create and contrive classroom situations which allow for meaningful communication similar to the types of language demands the children will encounter outside the classroom. These situations can be provided through games, role-playing or competition or, through the use of visual aids such as objects, pictures or classroom decoration.

The importance of pattern practice is widely recognized because it allows the language to become habitual and automatic because it is closely related to the imitation and analogy used in native language learning. Although drill is often criticized, most teachers have found that even bright, apt pupils who are usually quickly bored by drills recognize the need for language drill and will enter into it enthusiastically if the teacher can make it meaningful.

Language learning involves both neural and muscular habit formation. These habits can be formed only through the self-activity of the learner. Although modeling, correcting errors and leading practice drills are important and necessary instructional techniques, it is equally important that you as the teacher, as quickly as possible, reduce your oral language utterances and enter into a hearer-speaker relationship with the children. From the beginning of language instruction, your main objective is to get the class to talk while you listen. You should work to establish a teacher-pupil talk ratio of 20:80 (teacher 20 percent and pupils 80 percent of the talking time) when the class is working with familiar material (Finocchiaro, p. 31). This ratio cannot be applied when you are introducing new material because you may need to furnish the model over and over again as well as work on specific errors within the language pattern. When you are engaged in presenting new language material to the children, the ratio of your utterances to those of the children's is much higher than the ideal ratio of 20:80. However, when accurate production of the pattern has been established by the children, you should let the children do most of the talking while you remain quiet and listen in order to be able to offer encouragement and make corrections whenever needed.

Sometimes the opportunity for adequate pupil language self-activity fails to arise. Sometimes you will find that you must model over and over again. When this happens too much, new material has been introduced. All language teachers need to realize that the learning of a smaller amount of material well is better than being vaguely familiar with many language patterns but never familiar enough to engage in oral language dialogues without excessive teacher modeling and cueing (For more information see Eriksson, pp. 25-45.).

It is important for you to remember that actual learning of a second language can take place only through oral language performance which leads to language habit formation on the part of children. The children are the language learners and most of the language production in the classroom should be made by the children themselves. Your goal is to move the children from rote group repetition of your models to individual original dialogues among the pupils. By providing these progressively more independent language situations, you are providing the opportunity for self-activity in language production. This is essential to success because it is only through self-activity and finally through pupil-pupil dialogue, that the children will be able to actually master the second language.

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# MODULE 9

# THE BILINGUAL CHILD AND HOW HE DIFFERS

BY

NANCY LEWIS

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# THE BILINGUAL CHILD AND HOW HE DIFFERS

Author: Nancy Lewis

## GOALS

This module is designed to acquaint the teacher-learner with some of the psychological characteristics of nominally bilingual children, particularly as these characteristics are different from those of the "average" primary-age child. It should in addition help the teacher to work with these children in a bilingual education program to their mutual advantage.

## OBJECTIVES

1. The teacher-learner will define "developmental tasks."
2. The teacher-learner will delineate the developmental tasks associated with the early elementary years.
3. The teacher-learner will distinguish between those developmental tasks which are influenced by a child's acquired linguistic ability and those which are not so influenced.
4. The teacher-learner will delineate other characteristics of the nominally bilingual first grader which differ from those of the "average" six year old.
5. The teacher-learner will identify procedures peculiar to bilingual education programs which will help the child to deal with the problems previously identified.

## RATIONALE

There are several basic ways in which nominally bilingual children differ from the "average" (by which most writers mean "white, middle-class") child who is so vividly described in the educational psychology textbooks. Although it is certainly not the purpose of this module to "accentuate the negative" by making the bilingual child appear to be drastically different and thus strange, it is important that teachers know what these differences are. Only when teachers are cognizant of these factors can they really understand their students and capitalize on their strengths, rather than fretting about their weaknesses.

Because teacher training programs are necessarily geared toward the average teacher who will work with average children, it is essential that teachers who will implement the SEDL Bilingual Education Program be made aware of these differences. A creative teacher can come up with many new and exciting ways to deal with problem situations if she only has some idea of what the problem is.

LIST OF MATERIALS

1. Pencil or pen
2. Red pencil
3. Cover sheet

## INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

### A. PRETEST

Circle T if you think the item is true, F if you think it is false.

T F 1. The developmental tasks of the early elementary years, as defined by psychologists, have greatly influenced curriculum writers for the primary grades.

T F 2. Whether or not a child is linguistically different bears no relation to his ability to achieve fundamental developmental tasks.

T F 3. It is not at all unusual for the nominally bilingual child to say little or nothing to his teacher or to his peers during the first few weeks of school.

T F 4. The fact that children of early elementary age generally run in "gangs" or small groups helps to provide a rationale for the many small group activities associated with a bilingual education program.

T F 5. Facility with language is a highly-prized trait in most lower-class families.

T F 6. The fact that most teachers come from middle-class homes has little or no relationship to their ability to deal with lower-class, linguistically different children.

T F 7. The early elementary years are often characterized by a conflict between the values of the family and those of the peer group.

T F 8. A child's ability to acquire facility in a second language is influenced very little by his family's attitudes toward the cultural group who speaks that language.

T F 9. School phobia should probably occur less often among children who are linguistically different than among those who speak the dominant language only.

T F 10. Poor communication skills will have a pervasive detrimental influence on a child's school adjustment.

## B. ANSWER SHEET

1. T
2. F
3. T
4. T
5. F
6. F
7. T
8. F
9. F
10. T

1. A developmental task is a task which arises at a certain time of life and must be successfully completed by the individual in order that he may succeed with later tasks and that he may avoid unhappiness and disapproval by the society.

   Cover the above definition with a blank sheet of paper and rewrite it in your own words.

   (Your answer should include these ideas: (1) Arise at a particular time of time; (2) Achievement necessary for happiness and societal approval; (3) Successful completion of later tasks depends on successful completion of those at hand; (4) Are societally imposed)

2. Following are the developmental tasks most commonly associated with the early elementary years:
   a. Learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games
   b. Developing wholesome attitudes toward oneself as a growing organism
   c. Learning to get along with age-mates
   d. Learning an appropriate masculine or feminine social role

e. Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing, and calculating

f. Developing concepts necessary for everyday living

g. Developing conscience, morality, and a scale of values

h. Achieving personal independence

i. Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions.

Look over the above list and place an asterisk beside those tasks which require that the child already possess a command of the language in order to achieve within the context of the school.

Now look over the list again and put a check mark beside those which can be achieved only by a child with an essentially positive self-concept.

(There is certainly room for discussion as to the "correct" answers to the above, but these seem logical: asterisks by letters e, f, g, and h, and check marks by letters b, c, d, and e.)

3. Look over the list of developmental tasks again and give some thought to these questions: Can the culturally deprived and linguistically different child possibly work toward these goals at the same time of life as the average child? Will a bilingual education program assist him in so doing?

4. Following is a description of the language ability of an average, middle-class first grader:

> In the language arts ....... is relatively facile and well-balanced. He not only likes to talk, he likes to listen; and loves to be read to time and time again. He also looks at books alone and may pretend to read. He may recognize some of the capital letters, pick out familiar words on a page or placard and indulge in a little simple spelling ....... likes to use big words; and he is a spontaneous commentator on his own activities and those of others (Gesell and Ilg, pp. 378-80).

Now take your red pencil and underline those phrases which describe traits which you would not expect of a linguistically different first grader. (In most cases the entire quotation will be underlined.)

5. In the past, curriculum writers have had the "average" child in mind when they designed courses of study. Look at the quotation in No. 4 again and think about the ways that a curriculum designed for this child will inevitably "miss" linguistically different children.

6. The early elementary years are sometimes described as "the gang stage," and authorities point out that this is a time when a child's major interest is in group activities, group loyalty is highly important, and there is growing susceptibility to societal approval and disapproval. Think of some implications this trait might have for bilingual education.

(Your answer may include many ideas, but should certainly include these two: (1) Partially provides a rationale for the program in that bilingual education attempts to enable the child to become a part of the group; (2) Explains why a successful program must include many small group activities.)

7. In a previous module the self-concept has been thoroughly discussed. It was pointed out that the difficulties which nominally bilingual children have in the use of language and in adjusting to a social environment very different from that to which they are accustomed cause many negative feelings about self, and these in turn make learning even more difficult.

List some ways in which a bilingual education program might ameliorate the above-described situation.

(Your list should include these ideas: (1) A child will be more comfortable at school when his native language is used; (2) Acceptance of one's language implies acceptance of him and leads to feelings of self worth; (3) Teacher's use of the native language will facilitate child's being able to follow instructions and thus to participate in learning activities; (4) A teacher conducting a bilingual program should be more aware of her students' socio-cultural background and thus more able to make them feel at home in her classroom.

Note: Because most teachers come from middle class homes and participate in teacher training geared for the "average," it is imperative that teachers dealing with bilingual children familiarize themselves with their students' socio-cultural backgrounds.)

8. In lower class homes there is generally less of a premium placed on facility with language than in middle- and upper-class homes. List some possible explanations for this phenomenon.

(Some of the following might be included in your answer to the above: (1) Father generally handles things rather than symbols in order to make a living; (2) Families often larger -- less time for parents to encourage language development; (3) Facility in language and amount of education are highly correlated; in general, these families are less educated; (4) Children from lower class backgrounds have not been exposed to the variety of experiences that are available to other children; (5) Not likely to be as many books and magazines in lower class homes.)

9. The early elementary years are often characterized by a real conflict between the values espoused by the family and those of the child's peer group. Obviously this conflict will be more pronounced when the family is of a different linguistic-cultural group from the dominant.

   Give some careful thought to some ways in which a bilingual education program can help to ameliorate this situation.

10. Read the following descriptions of two linguistically different first graders:

    a. Juan Ruiz is the six-year-old son of Pedro and Petra Ruiz. He is the fourth of six children. The family immigrated from Mexico last year, and Pedro is working regularly in highway construction. Pedro is taking a course at night school to help him obtain his U.S. citizenship, and Petra is enrolled in an adult education course in basic English.

b. José Gonzales is the six-year-old son of Roberto and María Gonzales. He is the eldest of five children. The family has lived in Southwest Texas all their lives where the father works periodically for local ranchers. Roberto speaks only enough English to communicate with his employers and local businessmen, and María speaks no English and understands very little.

Now, Juan and José are both first graders in your classroom. Based on the family background given above, which one would you expect to learn English faster?

(Juan -- The authorities agree that the attitude of the family toward the dominant linguistic-cultural group is extremely influential upon the child's ability to achieve in the second language.)

11. What implications does the above-described influence of the family's attitude have for those who would administer a successful bilingual education program?

(Must strive for parental involvement -- if the attitude of the home is not already conducive to the child's achievement, teachers and administrators must attempt to change that attitude.)

12. "School phobia" is defined as an anxiety condition serious enough to interfere with a child's school attendance. Although school phobia is a severe reaction and thus not extremely common, many nominally bilingual children show the same kind of reaction in milder forms. These anxiety reactions can often be attributed at least in part to their inability to communicate.

How can a bilingual education program help to ameliorate this situation?

(Use of native language will help the child feel more comfortable at school, enable him to have some success experiences early in his school career, give some pride in his language and thus in himself.)

13. If you have done the instructional activities carefully, you are now ready to take the pretest again. This time you should be able to answer all the questions correctly.

## C. TEST

Circle T if you think the item is true, F if you think it is false.

T F 1. The developmental tasks of the early elementary years, as defined by psychologists, have greatly influenced curriculum writers for the primary grades.

T F 2. Whether or not a child is linguistically different bears no relation to his ability to achieve fundamental developmental tasks.

T F 3. It is not at all unusual for the nominally bilingual child to say little or nothing to his teacher or to his peers during the first few weeks of school.

T F 4. The fact that children of early elementary age generally run in "gangs" or small groups helps to provide a rationale for the many small group activities associated with a bilingual education program.

T F 5. Facility with language is a highly-prized trait in most lower-class families.

T F 6. The fact that most teachers come from middle-class homes has little or no relationship to their ability to deal with lower-class, linguistically different children.

T F 7. The early elementary years are often characterized by a conflict between the values of the family and those of the peer group.

T F 8. A child's ability to acquire facility in a second language is influenced very little by his family's attitudes toward the cultural group who speaks that language.

T F 9. School phobia should probably occur less often among children who are linguistically different than among those who speak the dominant language only.

T F 10. Poor communication skills will have a pervasive detrimental influence on a child's school adjustment.

D. ANSWER SHEET

1. T
2. F
3. T
4. T
5. F
6. F
7. T
8. F
9. F
10. T

Note: This material can be presented to a large group of teachers, rather than in the self-instruction form utilized here. If this is to be done, it is suggested that the lecturer use the following sections of Lewis's paper "Psychological Bases for Bilingual Education in the Primary Grades": (1) Developmental Tasks; (2) The Bilingual Child and How He Differs; (3) The Family's Role in Bilingualism; (4) School Adjustment of the Bilingual Child.

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# MODULE 10

# HISTORICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF HISPANIC CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE SETTLEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE SOUTHWEST

BY

MARGARET A. DAVIDSON

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# HISTORICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF HISPANIC CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE SETTLEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE SOUTHWEST

Author: Margaret A. Davidson

## GOALS

To develop in the teacher an awareness of:

1. The historical contributions made by the Hispanic world in the settlement and development of the Southwest.
2. Major portions of the cultural heritage of the Southwest which can be attributed directly to the Spanish and Mexican colonials.

## OBJECTIVES

1. The teacher will understand that distortions of American history occurred long ago and still remain as myth today.
2. The teacher will understand that Spain and Spanish colonials and Mexico and Mexican colonials played a major role in the settlement of the Southwest.

## RATIONALE (for the teacher)

For you to be able to understand, teach and assist effectively the Mexican American children in your classroom, you need to learn certain historical and cultural concepts. These concepts relate to the history of the American nation and, in particular, to the Southwestern part of the United States. Certain distortions of American history occurred as far back as early colonial times. These distortions have been a major element in the continuing discrimination against persons of Hispanic origin. With a clearer historical perspective it will be easier to identify and appreciate Hispanic contributions to our culture.

## RATIONALE (theoretical foundations)

### A. HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Too often, the long history of the Hispanic people in the Southwest is overlooked except for listing the travels of the more widely known early Spanish explorers. We often find ourselves thinking of the history of the Southwest as beginning with The Republic of Texas and the acquisition of the other land areas of the Southwest by the United States. Even if the history of the American Indian is set aside from this consideration, the history of the Caucasian settlement of the Southwest predates these events by more than two centuries. We tend to ignore and lose sight of the fact that the first white settlers in Texas and the rest of the Southwest were Spanish and that many of the present Spanish surname population are the descendants of these first white colonists.

The importance of this prevailing Anglo attitude of appearing to ignore the role the Spanish played in settling the Southwest should be considered carefully. This attitude toward the past has implications for the present. This attitude bears social and cultural results in the present.

How does the history of the Southwest, as learned with the usual distortions, affect us? It produces certain attitudes and generalizations about Hispanic people. Certain common distortions and myths were part of the English heritage of the Anglo colonists and were later accepted as fact by the Anglo Americans. The original purpose of the distortions, that is, an active propaganda campaign by the English to discredit Spain who was their most hated enemy and their economic and military superior, was soon forgotten and the propaganda became legend and was accepted as the unquestioned truth.

## B. HISTORICAL DISTORTIONS

Some of the more common myths that are believed by much of the Anglo American population are:

1. that Mexican Americans, generally, are not of the white race
2. that the Spanish were cruel conquistadores who came only to seek gold, or, at best, fortunes by exploiting the new land and its peoples
3. that the Spanish who settled New Spain were inept, inexperienced, and uninterested in local and self-government
4. that the Spanish did not have concern for the indigenous people nor the desire to civilize or colonize but came only to explore and conquer what they had discovered.

These four myths are given as examples of the many which are commonly held and taught as Spain's role in the New World. Unfortunately, many of the American history books currently in use in the public schools and colleges of this land present just such a picture. Hopefully, this will change because, quite recently, there has developed a growing concern among American historians, especially Hispanic-American scholars, that the facts of the case must be set straight and taught to all of America's children, adolescents and young adults at all educational levels (8:440-442).

C. FACTS AND MYTHS

What are the facts about the four myths just cited? Since the facts generally are ignored or distorted, we will look briefly at each, and a short list of references for further study will be given. The racial origin myth is clearly distorted. The great majority of the Spanish-surname population is both biologically and anthropologically white in race. This is recognized by the United States Government through agencies such as the Census Bureau. In the Southwest there is also some Indian ancestry for some of the Mexican Americans but even where there is the mixture of Indian and Spanish ancestry the cultural heritage is predominantly Spanish.

Yet, even here we find the myth in action in the general response to the Mexican Americans' Indian ancestry, which was predominantly Aztec and Mayan and certain other Mexican and Southwest Indians. There is generally a negative interpretation of this ancestry even though the Aztecs and Mayans had developed two of the highest levels of Indian civilization and culture in the Western Hemisphere. But such ancestry is not afforded the respect given the Northern Indians such as the Five Civilized Tribes, nor is pride fostered in this ancestry as is done for the Anglo American with Indian ancestors who were, for example, Cherokee Indians. So the Mexican American often finds himself in a separate racial category; not in ancestral origin nor on the U.S. Census rolls, but by social definition through the Anglo American racial caste-system which capitalizes on the racial origin myth commonly believed of and by America's Hispanic people.

Let us consider the second myth: that the Spanish were cruel conquistadores seeking gold and fortune. In actual fact, the Spanish came primarily to colonize and spread the Christian religion through the Roman Catholic Church. They founded over two hundred towns and hundreds of Catholic churches and missions. The Spanish established the first Christian churches and the first universities of the New World. It is fact that some Spaniards sought gold and power and exploited the people and land, just as some Anglo Americans sought gold and exploited the land in California, in the Klondike and are even now seeking and exploiting in South America, Canada and far off corners of the world.

The third myth, the indifference or lack of concern for and skill in local and self-government, has to be exploded by the fact that from the very beginnings of Spanish colonization they elected town councils and legislative assemblies in a manner quite similar to those found in the English colonies. Yet this fact is virtually unknown.

The fourth myth, that the Spanish came only to explore and conquer the New World they had discovered, without concern for the indigenous people and without a desire to civilize and colonize, has already been discredited by each of the foregoing discussions. Some additional facts this myth ignores are that from 1500 to 1800, over three million Spaniards, men, women, and children, came to the New World to live, to govern, to educate, to Christianize and to civilize. They established the first schools more than four hundred years ago. It was the Spanish who first brought the domesticated animals of Western Civilization to the New World such as the horse, cow, and sheep. It was from the Spanish horses that the Indians developed the "Indian pony" and from these that the wild herds of the Southwest descended. The longhorn cattle of Texas came from Spanish cattle, and from Spanish sheep were developed the herds of the Southwest Indians. Not just the English, but the Spanish also adopted the native corn of the New World and adapted it to their use. Tamales are as American as hush puppies, but this fact has been lost from sight in the common mythology of the American mass culture.

In conclusion, the above discussion clearly points out the kinds of social implications such distortions of historical fact have for the present. Such myths are the roots of prejudice of an insideous sort. Taught in schools, learned as facts by all children, among them the Mexican Americans, they reinforce and originate prejudice against those of Hispanic origin. When the Hispano learns and accepts these myths as truth, the state has been set to establish or reinforce a low self-concept and apathetic, defeated behavior. A reinterpetation of the Hispanic influence in the Southwest, through a factual historical perspective could have lasting benefit for all American people.

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   - *Chapter I — "Spanish Colonization of the Lower Rio Grande" pp. 3-20.
   - Chapter II — "Martín de Alarcón and the Founding of San Antonio" pp. 21-30.

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   - Chapter VIII — "Freedom in Spanish America" pp. 114-136.

3. Teja Zabre, Alfonso. *A Guide to the History of Mexico*. Mexico: Press of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1935.

   - *a. New Aspects of the History of Mexico, pp. I-XII
   - *b. Synopsis, pp. 1-17
   - c. Chronological Summary, pp. 21-54

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Additional bibliography of historical references (those of particular interest to the teacher are marked with an asterisk (*) and are suggested as optional reading.)

1. Dune, Peter Masten, S.J. *Black Robes in Lower California*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1952.

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    Chapter II "Prelude to Permanency" pp. 26-37

    Chapter III "Salvatierre and Permanence" pp. 38-51

2. James, Daniel. Mexico and the Americas. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, Inc., 1963.

    *Chapter I "Mexico and the West" pp. 3-16

    Chapter XV "The Era of Mutual Interest" pp. 394-439

    *Chapter XVI "Mexico and the Americans" pp. 440-450

3. Padden, R. C. *The Hummingbird and the Hawk*. Columbus: Ohio University Press, 1967.

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4. Salazar, Cervantes de. *Life in the Imperial and Loyal City of Mexico in New Spain*. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1953. (Written in 1554 by a teacher in the Royal and Pontifical University of Mexico - both translated and reproduced in original form.)

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7. Thomas, Alfred Barnaby. *Theodora de Croix and the Northern Frontier of New Spain*, 1776-1783. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1941.

Part II

"General Report of 1781" by Theodore de Croix

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*"Province of New Mexico" pp. 105-114

# MODULE 11

# ANTHROPOLOGICAL AND SOCIOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS RELATING TO THE HISPANIC PEOPLE OF THE SOUTHWEST

BY

MARGARET A. DAVIDSON

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# ANTHROPOLOGICAL AND SOCIOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS RELATING TO THE HISPANIC PEOPLE OF THE SOUTHWEST

Author: Margaret A. Davidson

## GOALS

To develop in the teacher an understanding of

1. Social class and its operations within the total culture and its influence on ethnic and racial minorities
2. Ethnic or racial minority membership as a relevant factor in the education of children of minority groups.

## OBJECTIVES

1. The teacher will be able to make general social class identifications.
2. The teacher will be able to determine which social groups are affected most by ethnic and racial minority membership.

## RATIONALE (for the teacher)

For you to be able to teach, and assist effectively the Mexican American children in your classroom, you need to understand certain cultural and sociological concepts. These concepts relate to the total American society, our racial and ethnic minority groups and in particular, to the Mexican Americans who live in the Southwest. You must also understand that the generalizations you make about cultural, ethnic and racial groups can be useful tools for you as you work to make your instructional methods and curriculum choices meet the needs of your children. However, you must also understand that a generalization is only that, and often cannot explain specific attitudes, beliefs and behaviors that you find within the particular group that is your class. Generalizations can be useful if they do not become over-generalizations and, finally stereotypes. Then they are no longer tools of understanding but weapons of rationalization which are no longer useful but a determent to effective instruction.

RATIONALE (theoretical foundations)

Cultural Characteristics of the Mexican Americans. No absolute generalizations can be made about the "culture" or "behavior" of Mexican Americans. They are individuals from individual families. Great variety is found in their religious affiliations, educational levels and aspirations, incomes and occupations, life styles, food habits and customs, dwelling and clothing choices. Among the Spanish surname population many are Hispanic in surname only and there are many whose ancestral origins are Hispanic yet whose surnames are not among those listed as Spanish. Among those whose ancestors were Hispanic, those ancestors were from all social classes, the ignorant peasant, the educated, landed upper class, the Spanish nobility, the Mestizo, as well as the Hispanicized Indian. There are those whose life styles and value systems are primarily derived from the Hispanic culture. From this Hispanic point then are found all degrees of influence until we find those whose life style is basically Anglo and whose only contact with Hispanic "culture" is on the days that Mexican food is served in the school cafeteria. This is not to say that there is not a Hispanic culture. It is to emphasize that there is a

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stereotyping of this culture that has served to handicap the teacher of Mexican American children. Rather than inspire the teacher to look for ways to reach these children, such stereotyping provides answers that are "too pat," underachievement is too comfortably explained away, and "solutions" that will not work are too easily accepted. The final apathetic rationalization too often becomes, "Oh, well, that's just the way they are."

What are we trying to find when we seek to understand the Hispanic culture? What are the characteristics of this culture as we find it in the Southwest today? Can we draw some generalizations, and, if so, how can we use them? Yes, there are some generalizations that can be made and used by you as a teacher which can help you in understanding and teaching your Mexican American children. But some generalizations can be applied only in a general way. Each class you teach is made of unique individuals and each Spanish surname child is at a particular point on the cultural continuum: Anglo-Hispanic-Indian, lower-middle-upper class ancestors, poor-adequate income-affluent, Caucasian-Mestizo-Indian in an infinite variety of combinations, degrees and interpretations. Each of us is unique and so is our response to our environment and our culture. In addition, each family is unique in their responses to each other in the traditional relationships and in their corporate response to their community, their cultural heritage and their aspirations for themselves as a family and for each other as separate members of that family. Yet with all our uniqueness, men and the cultures they create and the relationships they sustain everywhere are more alike than they are different, are more similar than dissimilar.

So the most important generalization that we can make, and the starting point for all other generalizations about mankind, is that each person is unique yet his common humanity makes him a member of the human community and a possessor and an inheritor of the great similarities and attributes which man shares with his fellow man.

The second generalization, of major importance, is about similarity in life sytles within a social class. Whether we are considering Anglo Americans, Mexican Americans, Spanish Americans, Negro Americans or any and all groups of Americans within a given social class, we find life styles, value systems and certain aspirations that are more like each other than are, for example, those of middle-class Anglos and lower-class Anglos or middle-class Mexican Americans and lower-class Mexican Americans. The middle-class Anglo American and the middle-class Mexican American live in much the same manner, believe in most of the same traditional middle-class values and aspire to many of the same goals. Because of this similarity the dominant culture tends to interpret middle and upper-class minority behavior as "Anglocized." That is to say, they believe the group has acculturated and accommodated itself to the Anglo culture and has taken its ways and values for their own.

But this is not the real picture. The dominant middle and upper classes have over-generalized. These class mores cut across ethnic behavior and are more visible than the unique cultural and ethnic mores. Whether a middle-class family opens their Christmas gifts on December 25th, or on January 6th, whether there is one day of Christmas, or twelve, whether the candy comes in a sock or in a piñata is not viewed as any major problem by the middle class of the dominant culture. The same is true of the upper class. The various ethnic and racial groups within the American upper class live in a manner more similar to each other than to those in the same ethnic or racial group who are members of a different social class. Differences in customs are not defined as socially significant and therefore do not have social consequences. These similarities in social class life styles and beliefs derive from Western Civilization and we find these similarities in South America, England, Europe, Russia, wherever we find Western man creating his civilization, which is basically our heritage from the Greeks and Romans. Spanish and English traditions both developed from the great traditions of Western Civilization. Both nations provided immigrants to the new land from various social classes, religious faiths, and occupations and professions.

Although we tend to think of the middle class as an Anglo phenomenon, this is not the case. This myth has developed because England's middle class developed in greater numbers at an earlier time than did Spain's and Mexico's. Therefore, it came about that the middle class tradition was claimed as the Anglo tradition.

Even when children are members of ethnic or racial minority groups, those of the middle and upper class, as a group, have fewer academic problems than children of the lower class. When lower-class children are also members of a minority group, one more big stumbling block in the way of their academic achievement is added. It is the lower-class children of ethnic and racial minorities who present the greatest instructional problems in our public schools. This is because ethnic and racial differences are defined as having greater social and personal significance by the lower class. Because this behavior does have social implications, we will consider some of the cultural and social attitudes of persons living in poverty, especially those of the poverty-ridden lower-class groups of Hispanic origin who live in the Southwest. Many of the extremely poor Hispanic Americans have lived for generations in poverty and many are the descendants of Mexican peasants who have an even longer history of poverty. But before we study specific attitudes of those afflicted with poverty, we will identify the peoples who belong to the Hispanic minorities in the Southwest.

Because there is such great variety in social, ethnic, and racial origins of the Hispanic people, we will limit this to a general description and identification of the three major groups that are found in the Southwest today and to their origins and general distribution. Spanish ancestors of many of the Hispanic people settled in the Southwest long before the first Anglo-Saxons came. Other ancestors colonized or immigrated from Spain to Mexico and then to the Southwest, while still other ancestors were from various tribes of American Indians, particularly the Indians of Mexico and in a few cases the Pueblo Indians of the Southwest. In fewer cases, yet in varying degrees, Europeans of other nationalities and people of other racial groups were also ancestors of the Hispanic people of America.

These people of Hispanic ancestry are often called the Spanish-speaking people of the Southwest. Yet, in their language there is as much variety as possible. Some speak only Spanish, some speak only English, some speak both, and some speak a mixture. Some are illiterate and uneducated and their speech reflects this; others are highly educated, and this, too, is reflected in their language, whether it is Spanish, English or both. Some speak English with an accent, yet others who have learned Spanish in school, speak it with an accent; so the term "Spanish-speaking" actually is used to mean Hispanic ancestry. The three major groups found in the Southwestern states are the Spanish Americans, the Mexican Americans, and the Mexicans.

The Spanish Americans are the descendants of the early Spanish colonist who were given Spanish land grants in New Spain. The Southwest was the farthermost frontier and these colonists lived in almost complete isolation from Mexico and Spain. Even today, some of their Spanish language patterns show a Hispanic origin of several hundred years past. These early Spanish colonists usually brought their wives and children and in some cases they brought their servants and their servants' families. These Spaniards intermarried in only a very limited amount with the Pueblo Indians of the Southwest. When the United States seized Santa Fe and the conquered Spanish colonials became United States citizens, their culture, traditions and beliefs were those of a European Hispanicism of the seventeenth century. The descendants of these Spanish colonials think of themselves as being of Spanish descent and some of them resent the term Mexican American if it is applied to them.

The Mexican Americans are of Mexican ancestry or naturalized citizens who immigrated from Mexico. Some Mexican Americans are descended from Mexican colonials of high birth and others from upper-class Mexicans who left Mexico when they were stripped of their land and wealth during the Revolution of 1910 and its aftermath. Others are descended from Mexican workers and adventurers who immigrated both legally and illegally to the Southwest seeking work, a better life, more opportunity, adventure or fortunes. The majority, although not all, of the Mexican immigrants in the last fifty years were Mexican peasants. They were of various origins: Spanish ancestry, Spanish and Indian ancestry and, some of pure or almost pure, Indian ancestry. Many, but not all of these immigrants were illiterate and in extreme poverty and most were of mixed Mexican and Indian blood. Most came to the Southwest planning to remain, but some came planning to stay only for a while and return to Mexico in better economic circumstances. Some returned to Mexico who had planned to stay, others stayed who had planned to return, but the vast majority of the Mexican immigrants who came to the Southwest stayed and were the ancestors of the Mexican Americans of the Southwest today.

The Mexicans are legally Mexican citizens who were born in Mexico and who have not become naturalized citizens of the United States. Although some Mexicans come to the United States expecting to return to Mexico, the majority stay in the Southwest and their children are natural born citizens. Mexicans and Mexican Americans sometimes resent being referred to as Spanish Americans if the term is used in a patronizing manner. They think of themselves as Mexicans or as descendants of Mexicans who are Americans. The Mexicans are biologically and culturally of the same origins as the Mexican Americans with most of the same great variety found among them also; expect that the Mexicans have Spanish as their native language.

Mexican nationals generally retain their sense of identification with Mexico, and generally have many close kinship ties with relatives in Mexico. Kinship ties and sense of identification are found also in varying degrees in many of the Mexican Americans. However, this is not true of a great many of the Mexican Americans. Again we have the continuum with the Mexican American population scattered along it from complete identification with Mexico to complete identification with the American Anglo-dominated mass culture.

For those Mexican Americans whose cultural patterns are Hispanic in origin, certain family patterns and attitudes are often found. The home is usually guided and directed by the father, sometimes in a male-centered, authoritarian way, sometimes more permissively. The wife is publicly subject to her husband's wishes, but within the home there is as much variety as we find in other family groups in how the private decisions of the family are reached. The Hispanic culture is described as male-centered. When this is the case, we are again describing the decorous behavior expected in public situation, social functions and family gatherings. Each family has its own private interpretation of this and its own set of family relationships, expectations and aspirations for the members of that family, male and female.

The majority of the Mexican Americans and Spanish Americans are Roman Catholic. However, there are many who are Protestants and some who are Jewish and others who have no religious ties at all. The Catholic tradition has had great influence on the Hispanic tradition. Yet if we consider all Hispanos as Roman Catholics, we have created another stereotype like the one that all Irish Americans were Catholics. Most were. Yet, however useful this information was, it became overused as most ethnic generalizations do, and ceased to be useful. This can be the case with the religious categorizing of Mexican Americans.

The food habits of Mexican Americans range from tamales and beans to steak and potatoes. Much of this depends on family income and exposure to different foods. The more money a family has to spend on food the greater variety in food does that family have. The poor Anglo often lives on the same beans, with cornbread instead of tamales.

Most of the other "characteristics" that are so often attributed to Mexican Americans can be found in almost any sociological description of the poor of any group. These are the characteristics of poverty that cut across ethnic lines and identify, not racial and ethnic origins, but generations of poverty. They are the characteristics of the culture of poverty. These characteristics are:

1. A lack of security and stability,
2. An attitude of resignation and apathy,
3. Present orientation in time without regard for the future (often referred to as the inability to wait for delayed rewards).

4. An apathetic attitude which accepts the probability of academic failure and eventual drop-out from school by the young,

5. An independence of spirit which is manifested among the poor in an attitude of defiance such as "not owing anyone anything," or in hostility toward the welfare agencies upon which they often depend, or in the formation of ethnocentric groups.

These attitudes are found in Negro ghettos, Northern slums, Southern mountains, and poverty-ridden Mexican American communities, alike.

Because the poor are at the bottom of America's social ladder, they often try to find ways to look down on other groups. This generally comes about by the poor of one ethnic or racial group finding the poor of another racial or ethnic group to feel especially strong prejudice toward and practice discrimination against. Through such practices the poor often attempt to build their own self-concepts to a more tolerable level. This causes a tendency in each group in the culture of poverty to remain, exhibit and extend their own unique customs in still another attempt to build their own egos and a sense of security. (This is often why the poor Southerner's drawl gets broader in the North, for example.) All this causes each ethnic or racial group to draw closer together, which serves only to increase the initial hostility toward them and to feed their hostility toward the other groups. These are the roots and operations of prejudice which we will study later in some detail. It is this prejudice that causes the child of poverty in a minority ethnic group to suffer an even greater academic handicap than the child of poverty in the dominant group. Ethnic and racial differences are highly relevant to the lower class, generally.

We must work to build a pride in the child of Hispanic origin, in the rich history of the Spanish in the Southwest, and in their cultural contributions. We must help this child to find worth in himself by accepting with respect his unique characteristics. Yet, acceptance does not mean "failure to educate." It means to accept the beliefs and traits that do not harm the child or others, to encourage and foster those that build the child's value in his own eyes and those of society, and to re-educate and re-direct the child where his attitudes diminish him in his own eyes and those of society. Re-direction is part of all education. It is by education that the child can gain membership in the total culture, can realize his potential and become a contributing member of society.

Selections from the bibliography which are required reading by the teacher as a part of this unit:

1. Madsen, William. *The Mexican-American in South Texas*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964.
2. Simmons, Ozzie G. The Mutual Image and Expectations of Anglo-Americans and Mexican-Americans." *Racial and Ethnic Relations*, Bernard E. Segal (ed.). New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1966. pp. 193-205.

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*2. Manuel, Herschel T. Spanish Speaking Children of the Southwest. Austin: The University of Texas Press, 1965.

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# MODULE 12

# PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS FOR SECOND-LANGUAGE LEARNING

BY

NANCY LEWIS

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS FOR SECOND-LANGUAGE TEACHING

Author: Nancy Lewis

## GOALS

Although bilingual education is not the same thing as second-language learning, there is a large body of knowledge concerning the psychology of second-language learning which is also applicable to bilingual education. It is the purpose of this module to acquaint the teacher-learner with some of the factors related to success in learning a second language and with factors related to teaching a second language in the elementary school.

## OBJECTIVES

1. The teacher-learner will identify the role of second-language learning in the acculturation of nominally bilingual children.
2. The teacher-learner will delineate factors related to success in learning a second language.
3. The teacher-learner will apply the factors mentioned in Number 2 to her own students in her own teaching situation.
4. The teacher-learner will delineate factors related to teaching a second language.
5. The teacher-learner will apply the factors mentioned in Number 4 to her own teaching situation and to the SEDL bilingual program.

## RATIONALE

Bilingual education, as we know it today, is a relatively new field. Because this is so, there is a dearth of information in the educational psychology literature about bilingual education. Second-language learning is a much older and better established field, and authorities have written at length about the psychological factors pertaining thereto. Although the two fields are not the same, they are closely related, and much of the knowledge that is applicable to second-language teaching is also applicable to bilingual education.

Basic educational psychology courses in teacher-training institutions deal with factors related to success in teaching and learning under ordinary circumstances. Some of the factors related to bilingual programs are the same as those for education in general, and for these, this module will simply provide the teacher with a quick review. There are other factors, however, that are peculiar to second-language learning, or bilingual education, and it is extremely important that teachers who are working in the SEDL Bilingual Education Program be familiar with these.

Careful study of this module should make the teacher aware of the foundations for good teaching techniques, thus insuring success in teaching and learning, rather than letting success be an accidental by-product in some classrooms.

LIST OF MATERIALS

Pencil or pen

## INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

### A. PRETEST

Circle T if you think the item is true, F if you think it is false.

T F 1. As an individual learns a second language, he generally becomes more "in tune" with the culture of those who speak the language.

T F 2. Authorities report that using the mother tongue as the medium of instruction has little or no effect on a student's acquisition of a second language.

T F 3. Amount of exposure to the second language is an extremely important factor in a student's ability to learn the language.

T F 4. The emotional climate in which a second language is presented seems to have little or nothing to do with a child's desire to learn the language.

T F 5. A child who is extremely ethnocentric is likely to experience difficulty in learning a second language.

T F 6. One feature of a good bilingual education program is that it provides the students many opportunities to succeed.

T F 7. The optimum age for learning a new language seems to be twelve or thirteen.

T F 8. In order to run a successful bilingual education program, a good bit of rather sophisticated equipment is needed.

T F 9. It is extremely important, especially when working with culturally deprived children, that the materials used are not beyond the child's cultural background.

T F 10. It really makes no difference which words we teach children; it is only important that we teach as many words as possible.

B. ANSWER SHEET

1. T
2. F
3. T
4. F
5. T
6. T
7. F
8. F
9. T
10. F

1. Below are described two Mexican American fourth graders:

   a. María Flores, age 11, is enrolled in a traditional elementary school in a South Texas community. She spoke no English when she entered first grade. Her instruction throughout the primary grades has been in English, and she spent two years in the first grade and two years in the second. She is still not fluent in English and never speaks that language after she leaves school.

   b. Eva Sánchez, age 9, has been enrolled in a bilingual education program since she entered first grade. Although she spoke no English at that time, she has made steady progress and now communicates in English with some facility.

   Now, which of the two girls described above would you expect to have a more positive attitude toward her Anglo classmates and the Anglo community in general?

   Eva -- Research shows that as an individual learns a new language and becomes truly bilingual, his attitude toward the "other" language community becomes markedly more favorable.

2. Consider the implications that this "acculturation aspect" has when one is attempting to institute a bilingual education program in a community where there are at least two distinct linguistic-cultural groups.

(Assuming that each cultural group will become more "in tune" with the other by learning his language, reduction of the tension between the groups should automatically follow. This, in itself, is rationale for the program.)

3. The following factors have been defined by some authorities as extremely influential upon a child's ability to learn a new language:
   a. Desire — which is influenced greatly by the language spoken in the home, the general emotional climate in which the language is presented, and the leraner's need to communicate in the second language.
   b. Amount of exposure.
   c. Socioeconomic status (In this country facility with the English language enables an individual to progress on the socioeconomic scale.).
   d. Influence of leaders in the learner's native linguistic-cultural community -- which is also influential upon the learner's ethnocentric tendencies In general, the more ethnocentric an individual is, the more difficulty he will have in acquiring another language.).
   e. The use of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction.
   f. Educational adjuncts -- e.g., mass media, audio-visual aids, etc.
   g. Common elements in the two languages — e.g., alphabet, common derivations.
   h. Native intelligence.

In each of the following pairs, predict which of the students will have an easier time learning a second language.

* * *

(1) José Sánchez comes from a home where only Spanish is spoken. He is the youngest child in a family of eight and never ventures into the community unless he is accompanied by an older sibling.

(2) Roy Soto comes from a home where both English and Spanish are spoken. He is the oldest child in his family, and his mother frequently asks him to run errands in the community for her.

* * *

(3) Mario Márquez is enrolled in a program where Spanish is used as the medium of instruction through the school day.

(4) Juan López is enrolled in a program where English is the medium of instruction, and Spanish is used for forty-five minutes each afternoon.

* * *

(5) Yvonne Ledesma's family has lived in Central Texas for three generations. Her father works in a service station in a different part of town from where they live, and the family has many friends among the Anglo and Negro communities.

(6) Dolores Hernández's family's first-generation in Texas. They return to Mexico to visit relatives at every opportunity and have no friends outside the Mexican American community.

ANSWERS: Roy, Mario, Yvonne

4. The need to succeed is a universal one, and providing for this need is an extremely important aspect of any learning program. This is especially important when the students with whom we are working have already experienced a great deal of failure.

Think of your classroom and jot down ways to help each child succeed at something -- especially during the first few weeks of school. If you are not participating in a bilingual education program, give special thought to the aspects of that program which help you as the teacher to provide success experiences.

5. Many authorities believe that the optimum age for acquiring a new language is 4 to 8. What implications does this fact have

for communities which are planning to institute a bilingual education program?

(Should start the program no later than the first grade and in public kindergartens if possible.)

6. Following are some principles which authorities stress in the teaching of a second language.
    a. Proceed from the known to the unknown. Learning situations should be close to those which the child knows, proceeding from translation in the mother tongue.
    b. The child should never be asked to express ideas in the new language that are more complex than he is able to deal with in his native language.
    c. The teacher should use very simple apparatus and equipment.
    d. The teacher must choose materials that will fulfill both emotional and intellectual needs. The child should derive pleasure from his work, and no materials should go beyond his cultural background, nor be above or below his age and interest levels.
    e. Interest must be motivated in each activity. The teacher should use pictures and props which will bring forth spontaneous expression.

f. Vocabulary must be meaningful in order to provide functional practice of the new language.

g. The children must practice each concept until it becomes automatic.

Now, consider each of the above factors individually and jot down an activity or a teaching technique or simply an idea which will help you to incorporate that idea into your classroom situation.

a. Going from known to unknown --

b. Expressing simple ideas in new language --

c. Simple apparatus and equipment --

d. Materials: proper age level, pleasurable, not beyond cultural background --

e. Motivation of interest --

f. Meaningful vocuabulary --

g. Practice --

If you have done all the instructional activities carefully, you are now ready to take the pretest again. This time you should be able to make a perfect score.

## PRETEST

Circle T if you think the item is true, F if you think it is false.

T F 1. As an indiviudal learns a second language, he generally becomes more "in tune" with the culture of those who speak the language.

T F 2. Authorities report that using the mother tongue as the medium of instruction has little or no effect on a student's acquisition of a second language.

T F 3. Amount of exposure to the second language is an extremely important factor in a student's ability to learn the language.

T F 4. The emotional climate in which a second language is presented seems to have little or nothing to do with a child's desire to learn the language.

T F 5. A child who is extremely ethnocentric is likely to experience difficulty in learning a second language.

T F 6. One feature of a good bilingual education program is that it provides the students many opportunities to succeed.

T F 7. The optimum age for learning a new language seems to be twelve or thirteen.

T F 8. In order to run a successful bilingual education program, a good bit of rather sophisticated equipment is needed.

T F 9. It is extremely important, especially when working with culturally deprived children, that the materials used are not beyond the child's cultural background.

T F 10. It really makes no difference which words we teach children; it is only important that we teach as many words as possible.

ANSWER SHEET

1. T
2. F
3. T
4. F
5. T
6. T
7. F
8. F
9. T
10. F

Note: This material can be presented to a large group of teachers rather than in the self-instruction form utilized here. If this is to be done, it is suggested that the lecturer use the following sections of Lewis's paper "Psychological Bases for Bilingual Education in the Primary Grades" as background material: (1) "Acculturation Through Acquisition of a Second Language," and (2) "Factors Related to Success in Learning a Second Language," and (3) "Factors Related to Teaching a Second Language in the Elementary School."

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# MODULE 13

# MINORITY GROUPS AND THE PROBLEMS OF PREJUDICE, DISCRIMINATION AND POVERTY

BY

MARGARET A. DAVIDSON

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# MINORITY GROUPS AND THE PROBLEMS OF PREJUDICE, DISCRIMINATION AND POVERTY

Author: Margaret A. Davidson

## GOALS

To enable the teacher to understand:

1. How prejudice and discrimination develop and operate within a pluralistic society.
2. How the dominant group defines, identifies and maintains minority groups within the total society.

## OBJECTIVES

The teacher will be able to:

1. Identify characteristics and categories that are used to identify minorities.
2. Describe how minority membership acts as an economic handicap to the individual.
3. Describe how minority membership and poverty undermine feelings of self-worth.

## RATIONALE (for the teacher)

We will consider the problems and operations of prejudice and discrimination against minority groups. We will also consider the problem of poverty, its relationship to minority group membership and discrimination against minority groups, and why prejudice is fostered by poverty.

As understanding of these operations increase, you will be better prepared to cope with the existence of prejudice and discrimination. This will help you to work with your children so that you can take counter measures that will build a feeling of worth in the children in a wholesome, positive way rather than in a destructive, negative way.

RATIONALE (theoretical foundations)

The problems of prejudice toward and discrimination against minority ethnic and racial groups within a pluralistic society have been identified as actually being problems of the dominant group within that society. We also know that the existence of poverty and deprivation is a problem of the affluent members of that society.

The great Swedish sociologist, Gunnar Myrdal, in studying the American racial milieu saw "The Negro Problem" (that is to say, the minority group's problem) as, in actual fact, "The White Man's Problem" (or, the dominant group's problem). Myrdal explained that the existence of minority groups is in direct conflict with the American creed of freedom and equal opportunity for all. This creed is set forth both officially and unofficially in the historical documents, literature, and folklore of our land. Because of the disparity in the creed and the reality, Myrdal saw the existence of the minority groups as the American dilemma. By this he means: how can the American dream of freedom and equal opportunity for all be reconciled with the treatment of America's racial and ethnic minorities?

In addition, why is extreme poverty more prevalent among racial and ethnic minority groups? Why is it commonly believed that their higher ratio of poverty victims is a logical state of affairs?

We will consider these questions as we study how minorities are defined, how group boundaries are established, and how minority status is perpetuated. This will lead us to an understanding of why a society creates minority roles within its culture.

## A. ESTABLISHING PREJUDICE AND MINORITY GROUPS

Prejudice toward a minority group does not develop through contact with that minority group as is generally believed. Prejudice is developed through personal contact with the prevailing attitudes toward minority groups. Ideas and attitudes "prevail" when they are held by the dominant group of a society. The dominant group is generally a majority, but not always; dominant status denotes power. In order to be dominant, a group must control the social power and must establish and sustain the mores of that society. Because of these functions, the dominant group is responsible for whatever cultural integration is found. But they also develop whatever attitudes of prejudice and practices of discrimination that are found within the society.

To create prejudice, the dominant group must establish social definitions of minorities. These vary from society to society, but the process by which such definitions are reached is the same. The dominant group establishes group boundaries and then identifies individuals as members or nonmembers. After minority status is defined, it becomes a social reality which bears consequences. Whether the minority can be identified biologically or not is immaterial. For example, the only way Jews could be identified as belonging to a defined minority group in Germany was for the Jews to be required to carry identification cards at all times. Once an individual has been assigned to minority group membership, he finds that by that very fact he is in a position of having less social power and economic opportunity.

In the terms minority-dominant, the implication of social power is carried. Although minorities are usually a mathematical minority, and the dominant group is usually a mathematical majority (sometimes these terms, majority and dominant, are even used interchangeably) this is not always the case. This refers to a social power phenomenon, not a mathematical one.

Since numerical proportion is not the factor involved, let us see what factors are used to establish minority group membership. To be a racial or ethnic minority, a group of people must share one or more characteristics which are different from the dominant people in the society. Characteristics such as race, skin color, eye formation, food habits, religion, language or even a different history are selected to be socially defined as relevant. The dominant people then identify the minority people on the basis of the characteristics selected and they are set apart as different and treated as such. Such situations usually arise through both voluntary and involuntary immigration, annexation, colonization, and welfare. When boundaries of a nation change suddenly as in the case of the Spanish colonials in New Mexico, a people can be dominant in their own society one day and find themselves a minority in a different society the next day because the locus of power has shifted.

Voluntary immigrants usually enter the society of their choice in minority status. Whether they are seeking new opportunities or fleeing persecution, and whether they are physically and racially different or not, makes little difference. Immigrants are usually unfamiliar with the language, monetary system and/or customs of their new home and can be identified quickly as "outsiders" and "inferior." If a voluntary immigrant should bring some prized skill, such as those brought by persons such as Albert Einstein, Paul Tillich, Albert Toscanini, or Ingrid Bergmann they are exempt from all or most discrimination. However, these are not typical cases, and their treatment is not typical.

Involuntary immigrants always enter a new society in minority status because, as captives or slaves, they have been brought against their will. The fact of power inferiority is clear from their entry into the society as well as that of economic impotence.

Because our nation was built by all these processes: colonization, annexation, and involuntary and voluntary immigration (and continues to grow through voluntary immigration), everyone in it is either a minority group member, or is descended from people who were at one time part of a minority. (The first Anglo settlers in New England and the first Hispanic settlers in the Southwest were minorities and had to learn to get along with the Indians and acquired some of the native culture; for example, the use of corn and certain agricultural, fishery and hunting practices.)

Because our society is pluralistic in nature, every person has the opportunity to be a part-time member of a dominant group. For example, all Protestants, Negroes, whites and others, have united to oppose a Catholic power. All Christians (English and Spanish-speaking Catholics, Protestants, and other Christians of all races and denominations) have united to oppose Jewish expansion. White gentiles and Jews have united to keep other races from moving into a neighborhood. Since everyone has been a part-time minority member, or has descended from one, everyone still has access to part-time dominant status. But for most minority groups this is only part-time access when the dominant group admits them to temporary dominant status to increase the power of the dominant group. It is still by the privilege of the dominant group that such part-time membership is allowed. The minority is still socially defined as having minority group membership by one or more of the socially defined relevant characteristics. Their part-time dominant role does not give them dominant membership.

## B. THE OPERATION OF DISCRIMINATION

Why are minority groups maintained by a society? They are maintained by the dominant group because by the very existence of minority groups, there is another group, the dominant group, which has greater power, rights, and privileges. Those, in the dominant group wish to maintain their privileged position as an integral part of the social system which they have established. To maintain this higher status, the dominant group twarts minority members as they seek access to positions of power. The roles of hiring, firing, ownership, and management are usually held by members of the dominant group. By the time a dominant member reaches a position of power, he has already learned to continue, often without his own awareness, the process of twarting minority members' access to power, and in his management, decisions automatically favor individuals who are also of the dominant group. One of the devices the dominant members use in justifying their behavior is the creation of stereotypes of minority group members as inferior persons with certain clear-cut inferior traits. Then dominant members feel no need to seek further understanding of the minority group, consider them inferior and different, and believe that they deserve inferior treatment.

Sometimes minority group members accept the stereotype, and suffer a great loss in self-esteem. If so, they become resigned and believe that the discrimination practiced against them is justified. The stereotype becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy for both groups. The expected behavior becomes a reality. One example of how this can operate is the case of some schools for minority group children. Sometimes these schools are the most poorly equipped and the most under-staffed. The power structure within the educational institution sometimes feels that to try to educate the minority population at the same level as the dominant population would be a waste of money because the children of the minority group are not capable of the same level of educational attainment. So when the products of this inferior educational opportunity turn out to have made inferior achievement, the lower expenditure on equipment, facilities, and staff appears to be justified. The real causes of the inferior achievement are not questioned. The end product was that the minority was inferior; the self-fulfilling prophecy is in operation and the vicious circle is closed. All stereotypes, whether racial, ethnic, or any other type, carry elements of self-fulfillment.

After the establishment of the minority group's inferiority, the members of the dominant group strengthen the stereotype of themselves in which they think they are superior since they are so much better than the minority groups. This serves to build the dominant group's feelings of self-esteem and operates to assist them in superior achievement. This is the foundation for easy justification of keeping the low-paying, undesirable jobs, that is to say, the dirty work of the society, for the "inferior" groups in that society. The minorities' "inferiority" is also the easy explanation of their higher incidence of poverty.

We must consider more closely the control of desirable positions through the power of the dominant group. There is always a scarcity of desirable positions which give access to economic and social power. This is true of any society. If there were free competition for these positions, no group would be favored. However, if this were the case, the dominant group's control of social and economic power positions would be weakened and perhaps lost to a new dominant coalition. The more nonmember competitors who can be categorically dismissed, the greater is the chance of success within the dominant group and the greater the chance that the group, as such, will remain dominant. An insidious consequence of this is that those in competition fail to ever realize or else, choose to never realize or to forget, that they were not really in competition with members of the minority groups. Or, if they do believe they were, they think their own success indicates that the minority is indeed inferior. So the conclusion is reinforced that minority lack of power and affluence is fair and is what they deserve since they have failed in free and open competition. Thus, through such rationalizing, many successful Americans have learned to live comfortably with "The American Dilemma." The dominant members, rather than feeling guilty, too often firmly believe that the minority groups deserve the low economic and occupational place they occupy.

Certain socially defined characteristics bear greater consequences of discrimination and endure for longer periods of time. In this nation, the category of race is invariably relevant. This is so because of the visible nature of race and the enduring stereotypes associated with race. Since race is easily identified, assimilation into the dominant group cannot be accomplished by merely learning the mores of that group. Certain minority groups, such as the Irish-Americans, who were not racially different from the dominant group acculturated and were assimilated rapdily and no longer have minority status. However, for certain other minority groups who possess racial differences, even though they acculturate they find that assimilation is an almost insurmountable problem. This is often the case in such groups as the Negroes, Indians, and Oriental-Americans. So long as their visible physical differences are defined as socially relevant, the minority groups who possess these differences cannot learn their way into assimilation and dominant status. Neither skin color nor eye formation can be learned but they can be defined. Physical attributes are more permanent definers and maintainers of group boundaries than cultural traits. As an example of the social relevance of race, consider the Anglo couple who had a party for a physician friend of theirs who was stopping over to see them on his way from the East to the West coast. When their Anglo guests arrived to meet the physician friend and found him to be a Negro, all were offended that they had not been previously informed.

Regardless of which social definitions the dominant group selects to identify the members of the minority group, another important factor in minority group membership is the minority member's own self-awareness of his minority status and the acknowledgment of the defining characteristics as relevant. After accepting his minority group membership, he generally selects a minority role. Sometimes he selects a permanent role; sometimes he tries several roles within his lifetime.

Roughly, there are five such roles from which to select. In very general behavior terms these are:

(1) militancy which seeks to eliminate minority and status,
(2) pride in membership and accomplishments of the group,
(3) apathetic acceptance of his inferiority and low economic and social position,

(4) withdrawal from situations which result in minority awareness, and

(5) assimilating and passing into dominant group memberships (sometimes with, and sometimes without, acknowledging minority origins.)

The individual must learn that he is a member of a minority group. He is not born with this knowledge. The dominant group teaches both their own young and the young of the minority group that the minority exists and is considered inferior. Parents of the minority group teach the expected behavior toward the dominant group to their young for their own protection. By the time the child of either group is at kindergarten age, these roles, to some degree, have been established. As an example, in observing children in kindergarten free play, it is found that both Negro and white children prefer to play with white dolls and select them first. Generally, when the Negro dolls are used in play, a minority role is assigned to them.

## C. ETHNOCENTRISM -- ITS DEVELOPMENT AND FUNCTIONS

Ethnocentrism is the judging of other groups by the standards of one's own group. Such behavior creates a feeling of superiority and tends to make the ethnocentric group cohesive and to maintain that group's stability. Ethnocentrism is in operation within the dominant group when they reject minority behavior, regardless of the situation or nature of that behavior. For example, the dominant group will cite the existence of few Negro physicians as proof that Negroes lack ability and motivation. On the other hand, the same dominant group will cite the high proportion of Jewish physicians as evidence of the "pushy" nature of Jews. This is what is meant in the saying, "In-group virtues are out-group vices."

Other examples of this behavior are shown by the dominant group's evaluation of behavior such as John Wayne's or Will Roger's losse-jointed rolling gaits as being distinctive, but would find that same gait as an indication of "being lazy" or "showing off" in a minority member. The dominant group holds up Abraham Lincoln's struggle for education as an indication of his desire to improve himself and of his hard-working nature, both looked upon as virtues. But they often view a hard-working, struggling minority member, José López for example, as an overly ambitious and driven person who does not know his "place." Whatever the minorities do can be looked upon as objectionable behavior by the dominant culture. This is dominant group ethnocentrism in operation. Ethnocentrism operates to the advantage of the dominant group in maintaining power, prestige, and group boundaries.

Ethnocentrism functions in much the same way when it develops within minority groups. It tends to keep the members of the group together as a unit by developing a feeling of group superiority. The individual tends to reject the idea of leaving his own group to be assimilated by the dominant group which has been judged to be inferior by minority group standards. This is ethnocentric reaction to discrimination. Minorities often retaliate against dominant rejection by inventing negative epithets for the dominant population. Those who must bear hearing their groups referred to as "Kikes," "Spicks," or "Niggars" retaliate with terms such as "Goys," "Gringoes," or "Honkies." Through these behaviors minorities are working to build feelings of their own group worth and ultimately feelings of self-worth.

However, the appearance of minority ethnocentrism operates to the disadvantage of the minority groups within the total culture. The dominant group becomes further alienated from the minority group and prejudice and discimination increase. Even when minority group leaders work to lessen discrimination and prejudice by publicizing accurately the real contributions and accomplishments of the minority group, this seems to increase dominant group hostility. In such cases, the minority leaders are operating on the assumption that the dominant group is ignorant of the minority's accomplishments and hence have judged the group inferior. The further assumption is made that when the dominant group learns that the minority group is not really inferior that equal treatment, or at least, an improvement in group treatment will be the result. Such are not the results. The minority group solidifies under this influence, but the dominant group's antipathy increases and social and economic barriers are strengthened.

There is still another function of ethnocentrism within the total society which we must consider. Prejudice, discrimination, and ethnocentric behavior offer a means to express aggression in a socially accepted way. Group boundaries, once defined by physical and cultural differences, allow the institutionalization of groups. With a society divided in this manner, groups use other groups as objects for the expression of aggression and hostility. This need for expression seems to stem from man's close proximity to his fellow man in social living. Through a long history of social development, ethnic hostility and racial prejudice have been used in this manner as ways of relieving the tensions of social group hostility. Since overt violent hostility is the most disruptive force in social living, both the dominant group and the minority groups have a need to express their hostilities in more subtle ways. Ethnocentric behavior in which both the dominant group and the minorities develop sets of feelings of prejudice toward others not of their own group serves to develop their own feelings of worth and to draw boundaries around their own group. Then the various groups use each other as objects to "look down on," "feel better than," and, ridicule. Each group tends to "stick with my own kind" and exclude and belittle all others. Such behavior seems to serve as one of the less violently disruptive social expressions of aggression and hostility.

The attitidues of prejudice and practices of exclusion are even more pronounced within the culture of poverty. These are the poor of the land; the multiethnic and multiracial group who lives in extreme poverty and deprivation. This group constitutes a type of minority in itself because they have neither social nor economic power. The dominant culture and the middle and upper classes all view the poor as inferior, a fact of which the poor are fully aware. They also realize that they do live in inferior conditions, and usually have inferior educations and job opportunities. Even those members who are ethnically and racially of the dominant people know that they are not members, but only potential members. Resentment and hostility develop among the people of poverty and they turn these forces into increased ethnocentric behavior. Often ethnic and racial subgroups draw tight group boundaries and feel intense prejudice toward some or all the other subgroups within the culture of poverty. These are the operations of prejudice, but the price is too high. The loss in personal self-esteem and in potential social contributions by victims of prejudice is great. Man must find a wholesome creative way to express his aggressive tendencies.

With increased understanding of the operations of prejudice and discrimination, we must be careful to not over-generalize. We cannot put people in categories of "prejudiced" or "non-prejudiced." We cannot assume that a person discriminates in all his social interactions or else in none. Prejudice and discrimination are not so simple. Most of us are virtually unaware of our own prejudices. We usually assume that our prejudices are realities and do not question their truth. We usually assume our own discriminatory practices to be normal, just, and logical behavior since they were built on these unquestioned prejudices. It is only because we believe our prejudices to be the reality that social discrimination produces such destructive consequences.

In conclusion, let us consider how our own opinions and attitudes were formed. Most were formed when we were children and adolescents by social forces of which we were not aware. This is part of the process by which a society develops a social consensus, which, to a certain degree, is necessary in order for that society to endure. However, if the society is not to become sterile, individuals must make independent contributions which were developed from their own experiences and from the insights and knowledge gained through them. If consensus becomes unthinking conformity, then the social dynamics are disrupted; growth stops within a society when the individual no longer can function adequately as an independent person. Much of his potential creativity and productivity are lost. The society comes to a standstill and finally starts downhill.

We must examine carefully the operations of dominant-minority relationships. We must seek experiences which will lead to greater insight in these operations. It will be through our individual experiences in such situations that we will modify our expectations of other groups within our pluralistic culture. When we modify our expectations of how others will behave, we automatically modify our interpretations of that behavior and our own behavior to meet our new attitudes. Through such a process we learn to see prejudice in its true form and free ourselves of it and the resulting discrimination. As teachers we have a vital role in helping this nation's children understand the operations of prejudice. No man has the right to build feelings of his own worth at the expense of another. The Supreme Court civil rights rulings have given impetus to change. What we as teachers need to do is set the climate for change, a climate that tangibly demonstrates that ethnic and racial discrimination are contrary to the American creed. Greater personal awarness will lead to greater social and economic freedom for all. This is the solution to interethnic and interracial relations. This is the American creed.

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# MODULE 14

# CULTURAL CONTRIBUTIONS: OUR DEBT TO THE HISPANIC PEOPLE

BY

MARGARET A. DAVIDSON

BILINGUAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT

# CULTURAL CONTRIBUTIONS: OUR DEBT TO THE HISPANIC PEOPLE

Author: Margaret A. Davidson

## GOALS

To develop an understanding that:

1. The Hispanic people have influenced philosophical attitudes in America for centuries and continue to do so.
2. The Hispanic culture has increased the graciousness to the life style of the American society, particularly in the Southwest.

## OBJECTIVES

The teacher will be able to identify:

1. Ideas, customs, and behavior which were of Hispanic origin.
2. Educational, economic, and recreational opportunities which exist today because of the people of Hispanic origins.

## RATIONALE (for the teacher)

You have learned much of Spain's role in the New World. In this unit you will consider what the present-day fruits are of early Hispanic influence. You will also study the present-day influences of the Hispanic people within our total culture.

This unit should be studied after Module #10, "Historical Perspective." When you understand the historical and present-day contributions of the Hispanic people, you will be better prepared to help your children build feelings of worth in themselves and for all others.

## RATIONALE (theoretical foundations)

We have studied the historical Hispanic contributions and the distortions of these. We have studied the implications and consequences of these distortions. We now must look at these contributions and see what continuing influences in this nation are of Hipspanic origin. The greatest contribution, both historically and today, is the humanitarian spirit which is embodied in a deep and lasting concern for the individual man and for all mankind.

### A. EARLY CONTRIBUTIONS

The humanitarian spirit, which is manifest through concern for civil rights, individual freedom and equal opportunity for all, was first brought to the Western Hemisphere by the Spaniards and fostered through the laws of New Spain. There it took root and grew to be a cherished tradition and sacred belief of the New World. As early as the mid-sixteenth century, Fray Bartholomé de Las Casas showed this spirit when he wrote concerning the treatment of the Indians. He believed that in dealing with the Indians, the only behavior that could be justified was "the method that is natural to all men: namely, love, gentleness, and kindness." Then he gave his reasons in this description of mankind:

> For all the people of the world are men, and the definition of all men, collectively and severally, is one: that they are rational beings. All possess understanding and volition, being formed in the image and likeness of God...Thus all mankind is one, and all men are alike in what concerns their creation and all natural things, and no one is born enlightened. From this it follows that all of us must be guided and aided at first by those who were born before us.

This attitude of concern for the individual and for all mankind is the most prevailing attitude in the value system of the Hispanic culture. This attitude is the foundation of the American creed. Often we fail to realize it was brought to America by the Hispanic people whose priests, officials, and colonists spread it. Through their influence and the influence of other groups, it became instilled in American thought and philosophy. From this great Hispanic contribution have come many of the characteristics that are identified as positive contribtuions by those of Hispanic origins to the present-day America.

## B. CONTINUING CONTRIBUTIONS

A major contribution in the Southwest has been the infusion of graciousness in human relations that has often been modeled from the Hispanic culture. Sometimes, ethnocentrically and negatively, it is called the "mañana culture." But it really means an unwillingness to pressure others for one's own benefit and convenience. In addition, much cultural variety and many enriching options have been brought to this nation, and to the Southwest in particular, in dwelling styles, food choices and personal apparel.

The Roman Catholic Church and its great Christian tradition have been maintained in the Southwest in large measure by the Hispanic peoples and their continuing influence. This has given all people wider religious choice. In the Catholic tradition, this church has worked much among the poor and the minorities to relieve their suffering. On a lighter side, the church-related and historical _fiestas_ have added gaiety, charm, and economic opportunity to the total way of life in the Southwest to the benefit of all.

Last, but not least, the Hispanic people have maintained the Spanish language in the Southwest. Historically this was the first non-indigenous language of the Southwest. For those who choose to learn a language other than their native tongue, this opportunity is available in the Southwest, where both English and Spanish are active, native languages. A bilingual opportunity is here for all who wish to be able to view the world through two languages. This is available for anyone who is willing to learn; bilingualism is an intellectual, economic, and recreational opportunity.

In conclusion, historically and currently, these are the important cultural contributions of the Hispanic people. These, not the stereotypes of _tamales_ and _sombreros_ and someone asleep under a tree, are the real influences that the Hispanic peoples have had and still have. We, as teachers, must recognize the worth of these contributions. We must teach America's children to feel gratitude and give credit where credit is due. It is long overdue to the Hispanic people of America.

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